Three Papers Exploring Work Experiences and Careers in the Era of Social Media

by

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Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in the

Segal Graduate School

Beedie School of Business

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SIMON FRASER UNIVERSITY

Summer 2023

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Abstract

The three papers in this dissertation explore how employees' careers and work experiences are evolving in the era of social media. In the first paper, a new construct, the job mobility mindset (JMM), is conceptualized and captures an individual's favorable beliefs about external job mobility. A strong JMM believes in the value of external job mobility to building an individual's human and social capital and developing a sustainable career. After developing a psychometrically valid measure of the JMM, the consequences of the JMM on the evaluation of job candidates are examined. The second paper examines how social media facilitates the development of "FOMO-*work*" (i.e., fear of missing out on better *work* experiences) in employees through untethered access to the curated highlights of other's work experiences. Specifically, FOMO-*work* is examined as a psychological mechanism linking employees' social media usage to job attitudes, well-being, and interest in external job opportunities. Finally, the third paper provides a systematic review and synthesis of research on social network ties in the organizational and social media context. A typology is developed to organize the numerous network ties examined across both contexts and along dimensions such as strength properties and tie content. In turn, new insights are generated on the types of network ties that may generate value to careers, as well as how network ties have evolved on social media. Together, these papers advance management research on employees' work experiences and careers in the social media era.

Keywords: Job mobility mindset; External job mobility; Social media; FOMO; Social network ties; Careers

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge an important group of people who supported me through my doctoral journey and made this work possible. To *Chris and Natalie*, I am proud and honored to have been your student. You have both enormously shaped my perspectives not only on research, but also, on life goals and values. Thank you for your dedication and commitment to my professional and personal development and pushing me to new heights. To *Nam*, underlying this work is your unwavering support, encouragement, and love. Thank you for being my partner on this journey. You encouraged me to pursue my dreams and supported me each step of the way including all the late nights studying together at coffeeshops and entertaining my research ideas. Most important of all, you are an amazing father to our son. To my *Mom, Kelly, Katie, and Jessie*- the most incredible family. Thank you for believing in me and taking care of my health and well-being. I am grateful to have your relentless support in all my ambitions. To my *Dad*, thank you for showing me perseverance and hard work. I miss you dearly and wish I could celebrate this milestone with you. Finally, to *Becky*, you made my doctoral studies infinitely more fun and showed me how to be enchanted by research. Thank you for your patience in mentoring me and being a great friend.

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Introduction

In this dissertation, I develop three papers that explore how employees' careers and work experiences are evolving in the era of social media. My research is motivated by the intersection of two contemporary workplace issues: increased external job mobility within careers and the ubiquity of social media usage by working adults. First, contemporary careers have evolved to include more external job mobility (i.e., changing jobs across organizations; Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Sullivan & Ariss, 2022). Scholars have attributed the changing nature of careers to rapid technological advancements that have increased the global competition faced by organizations and labor market competition experienced by employees (Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Fugate et al., 2021; Spurk et al., 2022). Further, technological advancements have rapidly changed job and skill requirements such that individuals must constantly update their human capital (e.g., knowledge, skills, and abilities) to be competitive in the labor market (Fugate et al., 2021; Garavan et al., 2001). Research suggests individuals may develop their own human and social capital by seeking new opportunities and transitioning between jobs (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Garavan et al., 2001). Thus, many individuals and some employers have embraced the idea that careers now involve more frequent external job mobility (Harbert, 2020; Hoffman et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2007).

Second, social media has increased the ability of employees to share and compare work experiences more than ever before. Although there is nascent research on the implications of social media in the workplace (e.g., Kane et al., 2014; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015; Rothbard et al., 2022), organization scholars acknowledge that there is much to learn about how social media influences employees' work lives (Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Scholars stress that social media can "revolutionize" the workplace as it becomes more intertwined with employees' work experiences such as developing and maintaining social relations, seeking referent information for one's own job, and building an online profile and presence (Colbert et al., 2016; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Thus, living in the social media era means individuals' work experiences can extend to and be influenced by the online space (Colbert et al., 2016). In particular, employees' social media usage can

influence their external job mobility (Bizzi, 2018) by providing them with greater abilities to view work-related information such as external job opportunities (Bizzi, 2018). In addition, social media allows employees to develop large and diverse social networks that can provide external resources unique from organizational networks (Kane et al., 2014; Steinfield et al., 2008). These affordances of social media can make the external labor market more salient and draw employees' attention away from their immediate organizations and towards external opportunities (Bizzi, 2018).

The rise in both external job mobility and social media usage contribute to the changing nature of work and careers. However, both domains and their intersection are underexamined in management research such that organization scholars have called for more research and fresh perspectives on how employees' holistic work experiences are evolving in the social media context (Colbert et al., 2016; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). Thus, to better understand how employees' careers and work experiences are changing in the social media era, I developed three papers that examine (1) individual beliefs about external job mobility in careers, (2) the influence of social media usage on employees' work experiences, and (3) social networks in organizations and on social media. Although the three papers are developed as stand-alone manuscripts, together, the combined insights elucidate how employees' work experiences are evolving in the social media era. I apply a variety of methodologies across the papers to examine my research questions including construct development (Paper 1), experimental designs (Papers 1 and 2), a field study in collaboration with a consulting firm (Paper 2), and a systematic literature review (Paper 3). A summary of each paper, as well as my motivation for each paper is provided below.

To start, the first paper, titled, "*Lack of commitment or well-rounded? Exploring individual beliefs about external job mobility in careers*," illuminates how individuals perceive the value of external mobility to careers. This paper was motivated by the increased frequency of external job mobility in careers, as well as a contradiction in prior research about the implications of external mobility to careers. On the one hand, research suggests there are career benefits to external job mobility such as gaining exposure to new experiences and environments and developing a larger professional network

(DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Yet, on the other hand, research also suggests that individuals with a track record of external job mobility are often labelled as job hoppers or poor performers (Becton et al., 2011; Raffiee & Byun, 2020). While prior research recognizes the increase in external job mobility within careers, there is limited understanding of how individuals perceive the *value* of external job mobility to careers. Thus, I sought to investigate whether beliefs about the value of external mobility vary across individuals and if so, what are the career consequences.

To investigate the varying beliefs that individuals have about external job mobility, I conceptualize a new construct, the job mobility mindset (JMM), which represents an individual's favorable beliefs about the value of external mobility to developing a sustainable career. I draw on human capital (Becker, 2002; Feldman, 1996; Garavan et al., 2001) and signaling perspectives (Karasek & Bryant, 2012; Spence, 1973) to theorize about individuals' beliefs regarding external mobility. From a human capital perspective, individuals may believe that external mobility is a strategic means to develop new skills, experiences, and social networks. From a signaling perspective, individuals may believe that having a record of external mobility can send positive signals to prospective employers about one's abilities and competitiveness in the labor market. To develop a psychometrically valid measure of JMM, I conducted five studies to establish the construct validity and as a result, a 7-item measure is developed. Further, in two experiments designed as resume screening tasks, I find that raters with stronger JMMs are more likely to evaluate job candidates with higher external job mobility more favorably (i.e., more competent, more employable, and in some cases, more positive hiring recommendation). Overall, Paper 1 establishes a new construct, the JMM, and provides new insight into how individuals may perceive the role of external mobility in developing a sustainable career.

Next, I sought to explore employee experiences in the social media context in Paper 2, titled, "*A relative deprivation perspective on the influence of social media usage on work outcomes*". This paper was motivated by a contradiction across different fields of research. In the limited management research on the social media context, employees' social media usage at work has been found to be associated with positive work outcomes

such as job satisfaction (Moqbel et al., 2013). However, research outside of the management field (e.g., psychology, computer science, communication, information systems, etc.) laments the detrimental effects of social media usage on individual well-being including depression and life dissatisfaction (Baker et al., 2016; Buglass et al., 2017; Chou & Edge, 2012; Dhir et al., 2018; Riordan et al., 2018). Given the widespread usage of social media and limited knowledge on the adverse effects of employees' social media usage on their work experiences, I sought to examine the psychological consequences of social media usage to employees.

Social media usage is strongly associated with the psychological consequence of "FOMO" (i.e., "fear of missing out"), which is an individual's pervasive concern that others are having better experiences than oneself (Przybylski et al., 2013). Individuals on social media notoriously share their best experiences and best selves, which can facilitate the impression that others are having better life experiences than oneself (Chou & Edge, 2012; Przybylski et al., 2013). Although FOMO is commonly referenced in pop culture to depict the anxieties of young adults on social media (e.g., Wallace, 2016), there is rapidly growing research on FOMO as a phenomenon experienced across all age groups on social media (Barry & Wong, 2020). Thus, I sought to understand FOMO in the work context and introduced FOMO-*work* (i.e., fear of missing out on better *work* experiences) as a state that employees can experience from their social media usage. Specifically, employees experiencing FOMO-*work* have intense concern about potentially better work experiences. I draw on relative deprivation theory (RDT) to understand the process by which employees may conduct subjective comparisons regarding their work experiences and form discrepant evaluations of their current work situation (Crosby, 1976; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984). In particular, employees may experience FOMO-*work* from constant exposure to the work highlights that others post on social media and in turn, form negative evaluations of their own work experiences.

To examine employees' social media usage, I conducted a field study with a consulting firm and two experimental studies with online employee panels. I tested a theoretical model linking employees' social media usage to work attitudes, well-being, and attraction to external job opportunities through FOMO-*work.* Also, I parsed the

unique effects of FOMO (as a trait) and FOMO-*work* (as a state) on work outcomes by developing a manipulation involving a writing exercise to prime the state FOMO-*work*. Overall, I theorized and tested a psychological mechanism linking employees' social media usage to work outcomes and generated new insights on how social media usage can lead employees to devalue their work experiences and enhance attraction to external opportunities.

While Paper 2 examined the adverse effects of social media on employees' work experiences, I was also interested in the potential positive effects of social media on careers. Prior research highlights the advantages of social media in developing large social networks that provide social capital and in turn, enhancing work and career outcomes (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Steinfield et al., 2008). Specifically, large networks on social media may grant employees access to more resources (e.g., information, equipment, emotional support, etc.; Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Steinfield et al., 2008). These embedded resources within social networks represent social capital and can enhance work and career outcomes such as higher performance and more job opportunities (Lin, 1999; Seibert et al., 2001). Therefore, I initially sought to develop a theoretical model to explain how social media usage can enhance career outcomes through the development of social networks and social capital.

As I dived deeper into prior research on social networks and social capital within the management and social media literatures, I found that social networks are composed of many different network ties (i.e., social relations within networks such as advice and friendship ties) and that the type of tie is crucial to determining the amount and type of resources embedded in one's network (Burt, 2002; Granovetter, 1973). However, there are many nuances to social media networks that are different from in-person networks, such as network ties that are unique to the social media context, as well as interaction dynamics on social media, which may or may not be beneficial to careers (Kane et al., 2014). For instance, unique ties to the social media context- parasocial and phantasmal ties- may not follow the traditional characteristics of network ties such as reciprocal exchange in resources (Lee & Yuan, 2020; Litt & Hargittai, 2016). My initial review also revealed many redundancies in the characteristics defining different network ties and a

lack of depth in understanding the distinctiveness of each type of network tie. This can hinder knowledge on how network ties and the associated properties generate beneficial resources to careers. Thus, these insights motivated me to modify my initial research objective and to instead conduct a comprehensive review of research on social network ties within management and social media literatures. As no prior review has been done that synthesizes network ties research, a comprehensive review would be highly beneficial to illuminate the current state of research and in turn, enable future researchers to develop stronger theories on how networks on social media influence work and career outcomes.

In the third paper, titled, "*A review and synthesis of network ties research in organizations and on social media*," I conducted a systematic review to synthesize 50 years of research on social network ties in the management literature, along with the most recent research in the social media literature. I searched the Web of Science database and casted a wide-net using broad key terms such as "social network", "tie" and "social media" in peer-reviewed publications in leading academic journals. Through a systematic process of reviewing article abstracts according to a clear set of inclusion and exclusion criteria, a sample of 347 relevant articles was generated across the management and social media literatures. My review identified over 80 different network ties (e.g., strong, weak, friendship, advice, instrumental, expressive, kinship, etc.) in the organizational and social media contexts, with strong and weak ties as the most frequently examined network ties. However, my review revealed that these ties are defined by multiple, and sometimes conflicting, characteristics which can confound their effects on work outcomes. After taking stock of the multitude of ties and the characteristic(s) of which they are defined, I developed a typology to organize network ties based on two key dimensions that jointly can explain the unique qualities and outcomes of ties: tie strength properties and tie content (Granovetter, 1973; Robertson et al., 2020). Not only does this typology highlight the unique characteristics of network ties in the organization and social media contexts, but also is beneficial to future research in identifying or developing more precise types of ties under examination and the specific tie characteristics that derive the network effects. Based on my comprehensive review of the

literature, I offer several future research directions as a way forward to integrate management and social media literatures on network ties.

Of note, the research in my dissertation was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. Given that the pandemic has severe and far-reaching implications not only on global health, but also individual work experiences and careers, it is important to note the potential influence of the pandemic on my research. Specifically, my core research ideas in Papers 1 and 2 were conceptualized prior to the pandemic and data collection occurred before and throughout the pandemic for both papers. Paper 3 is a review paper and was conceptualized during the pandemic. Although the effects of COVID-19 are not empirically tested in my studies, I discuss briefly the potential theoretical implications.

In my conceptualization of the JMM, I draw on research on contemporary careers which emphasizes increasing job insecurity and more independent approaches of individuals to career development (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Cappelli, 1999). During the pandemic, individuals experienced unprecedented unemployment rates and uncertainty in the labor market (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Despite the rise in unemployment rates, research during the pandemic finds that individuals were more open to job mobility and experienced an uptick in job search activities after the onset of COVID-19, even after accounting for the effects of the rise in unemployment rates (McFarland et al., 2020). The authors argue that as a coping mechanism to uncertainty, individuals may seek voluntary job mobility to enhance their own employability (McFarland et al., 2020). Drawing on these research findings, the pandemic may have intensified the labor market conditions (e.g., job insecurity) that underlie contemporary careers and beliefs of the JMM.

Furthermore, the pandemic also contributed to the increase in individuals' social media usage as individuals were forced to quarantine at home and many turned to social media for social interaction. In fact, research suggests internet traffic increased by 70% during the pandemic (Hayran et al., 2021). Also, many organizations adopted more digital tools during the pandemic to engage remote employees, such as implementing virtual workspaces where employees can design avatars and interact with colleagues in a

virtual environment (Kelly, 2021). Since the pandemic reduced the sharing of travel and social gathering experiences, social media should have elicited less FOMO. However, counter-intuitively, individuals still experienced FOMO during the pandemic. Research found that individuals' FOMO during the pandemic was elicited by other types of experiences shared on social media, such as virtual events (Hayran et al., 2021). Taken together, the pandemic has likely intensified the environmental conditions (e.g., job insecurity and social media usage) that underlie the motivations for this research and could exacerbate the effects under examination.

Overall, the three papers in my dissertation contribute to understanding how employees' work experiences and external job mobility are evolving in the social media era. First, my conceptualization of the JMM illuminates how individuals perceive external job mobility in careers. Second, I expand the knowledge on the effects of social media on work outcomes by underscoring the psychological consequences of social media usage in the form of FOMO-*work.* Lastly, I provide a typology to organize and synthesize research on social network ties which is a step towards integrating management and social media research on social networks and building more nuanced theories on how and which social network ties generate beneficial resources to careers. From the cumulation of knowledge and future directions developed in each paper, this dissertation ends with integrated future research directions and implications that aim to guide management research in studying the social media context.

Paper 1.

Lack of Commitment or Well-Rounded? Exploring Individual Beliefs about External Job Mobility in Careers

External job mobility, defined as job changes across organizations within an employee's career, is increasingly common and frequent (Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Ng et al., 2007; Sullivan & Ariss, 2022). The rise in external mobility can be linked to ongoing organizational changes such as flatter hierarchies with less opportunities for upward movement, increased hiring in the external market, and the growth of contractual and precarious positions (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Fugate et al., 2021; Spurk et al., 2022). Despite the increased employee movement across organizations, research generally emphasizes the negative connotations that employers associate with external mobility (e.g., Becton et al., 2011; King et al., 2005; Raffiee & Byun, 2020). For example, individuals with extensive external mobility are regarded as risky hires, who lack loyalty and commitment to the organization (Raffiee & Byun, 2020). In comparison, individuals who stay in one organization are generally praised for developing internal relationships and firm-specific knowledge (Coff & Raffiee, 2015; Morris et al., 2017). Given that there is more employee movement across organizations, and at the same time, employers are increasingly turning to the external market for the latest human capital (Rider & Tan, 2019), more research is needed to understand whether there are individual differences in implicit beliefs about the *value* of external mobility to careers and the associated consequences.

Individuals today are more comfortable with having external mobility throughout their careers (Ng et al., 2007). For many years, the decision to change jobs was viewed as a consequential life decision, resulting from enduring job dissatisfaction and a lengthy withdrawal process (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Jackofsky, 1984). However, in response to the more competitive labor market, employees are becoming more adaptable, embracing frequent change, and open to shorter-term employment relationships (Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Fugate et al, 2021). This may have contributed to individuals viewing external mobility as now an inevitable and less consequential aspect of careers (Fugate et

al., 2021; Ng et al., 2007). Supporting this evolving view of external mobility, DiRenzo and Greenhaus (2011) posit that external mobility is essential for career and personal development. They argue that the voluntary turnover and job search process is valuable for individuals to learn about the changing job market environment and realize their career potentials (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). In other words, external mobility can be a valuable strategy for career progression, rather than the result of a failed or dissatisfactory work experience (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Feldman & Ng, 2007; Thijssen et al., 2008). Thus, we propose that beliefs about the value of external mobility to careers vary across individuals.

A common thread across careers and human capital research is the increasing focus on self-managed, rather than employer-driven, development of one's human capital and career (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Fugate et al., 2021; Garavan et al., 2001; Ployhart et al., 2014; Raffiee & Coff, 2016). However, despite the emphasis placed on individuals to develop their own human capital, research is lacking on the strategies, such as external mobility, that individuals may use or perceive as valuable to do so. Moreover, while the career benefits of external mobility are beginning to be recognized, we lack a mechanism to examine the underlying beliefs about external mobility. Although there is extant research that examines individual *preferences* for mobility (i.e., organizational mobility preference; Briscoe et al., 2006), this does not capture the perceived benefits of external mobility, specific motivations to engage in a series of external mobility throughout one's career, or attributions that employers make about mobile candidates. Finally, it is unclear how employers' beliefs about external mobility vary and the associated consequences to individuals. More frequent mobility in the labor market also means employers are increasingly presented with job candidates that have track records of external movement on their resumes. Employers who hold traditional beliefs about external mobility may erroneously attribute individuals who have a series of external mobility throughout their careers as job-hoppers, poor performers, or having weak commitment and loyalty. Rather, individuals may be driven by their beliefs about external mobility as a valuable approach for developing human capital such as, diverse skills and experiences. Thus, clarity is needed on the contradictory beliefs regarding the

perceived value of external mobility, which in turn will inform individuals on the benefits and consequences of having a track record of external mobility within careers.

In this study, we conceptualize a job mobility mindset (JMM), which captures an individual's favorable beliefs about the value of external job mobility to one's career. First, we draw on human capital and signaling theories, as well as literature on the changing nature of employment relationships and careers, to theorize about the perceived value of external job mobility to careers (e.g., Baruch & Rousseau, 2019; Briscoe et al., 2006; DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Fugate et al., 2021; Garavan et al., 2004; Spence, 1973; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Specifically, from a human capital lens, individuals can seek strategies to develop their own human capital and may perceive external mobility as a means to develop the necessary resources to build a sustainable career. Additionally, signaling theory helps understand individual beliefs about external mobility as a market signal of one's human capital to prospective employers. Second, to ground JMM with conceptually related constructs, we theorize the commonalities with and distinctions from organizational mobility preference, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and perceived employability. Third, we develop and validate a two-dimensional measure of JMM, which encompasses a resources dimension (i.e., beliefs about the human capital gains from external mobility) and a signaling dimension (i.e., beliefs about the positive signals communicated by external mobility). Lastly, we illustrate the effect of a JMM in an applicant selection context by examining how a rater's JMM influences the evaluation of candidates based on resumes with varying levels of external mobility.

Our research provides three main contributions. First, we conceptualize a new construct, a JMM, and develop a psychometrically valid measure. In doing so, we provide a mechanism to examine individuals' implicit beliefs about the value of external mobility in building a sustainable career. Distinct from extant career constructs, a JMM contributes a unique perspective on beliefs about external mobility and career development. Importantly, a JMM also provides clarity on contradictory narratives employers may have about individuals who engage in external mobility (e.g., external mobility reflects career instability versus sustainability). Second, the development of a JMM integrates research on contemporary careers and the microfoundations of human

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capital. Careers research has emphasized the need for individuals to continuously develop their skills and abilities to remain employable in an increasingly volatile labor market (De Cuyper et al., 2012; Fugate et al., 2021). Concurrently, human capital research has identified the need for greater understanding of individual-level processes in developing resources valuable to one's careers (Garavan et al., 2001; Ployhart et al., 2014; Raffiee & Coff, 2016). Thus, a JMM bridges both literatures by illuminating individuals' beliefs about developing and managing their own human capital in contemporary careers.

Finally, a JMM illuminates the employer's perspective on external mobility. Despite prior research stressing the importance of examining both parties of the employment relationship, the majority of careers research is still focused on the employees' perspective (Fugate et al., 2021; Klehe et al., 2021; Rodrigues et al., 2015). Hence, a JMM captures beliefs of both parties- the employee and employer. Specifically, recruiters' and managers' JMM captures how they view the value of external mobility to human capital development and in turn, can bias their evaluation of prospective employees based on market signals communicated through track records of external mobility. While signaling theory is generally applied to understand how organizations send cues to individuals (e.g., Guest et al., 2021), where the signaler is the organization and the signal receiver is the employee, we build on the limited research that examines the individual as the signaler and the employer as the receiver.

Conceptualizing a Job Mobility Mindset

JMM is defined as an individual's favorable beliefs about the value of external job mobility to careers. We draw on human capital (Becker, 2002; Garavan et al., 2004; Ployhart et al., 2014) and signaling perspectives (Spence, 1973) to conceptualize the beliefs associated with a JMM. From a human capital perspective, individuals with a strong JMM perceive external mobility can provide beneficial human capital development to their careers. Human capital refers to an individual's knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (i.e.,KSAO's) that are relevant for achieving desired outcomes (Ployhart et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2011). From a signaling perspective, a JMM also encompasses beliefs about the value of external mobility in signaling one's

possession and development of human capital to prospective employers, such as the ability to adapt to new environments. We also explore the distinctiveness of JMM by outlining the commonalities and differences between JMM and other career attitudes including organizational mobility preference, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and perceived employability.

Human Capital Perspective on the Value of External Mobility

Individuals can invest in their own career development and seek strategies to develop their own human capital (Becker, 2002; Feldman, 1996; Garavan et al., 2001). At the firm level, human capital theory explains how firms can invest in the development of human capital (i.e., employees) to generate a competitive advantage (Wright et al., 2011). Similarly, human capital development can be applied to the individual level where individuals invest in their own development of KSAO's to establish sustainable careers (Becker, 2002; Feldman, 1996; Garavan et al., 2001; Raffiee & Coff, 2016). For example, individuals make strategic decisions to pursue education, certifications, or training to develop their human capital (Wright et al., 2011). In other words, individuals may seek strategies to develop a variety of KSAO's that jointly represent their human capital and in turn, can be used to achieve desired career outcomes (Ployhart et al., 2014).

Individuals today are expected to be more self-reliant in their career development (Fugate et al., 2021; Sullivan & Ariss, 2022) such that the responsibility for skills and knowledge development and career advancement is shifting more to the individual (Garavan et al., 2001). Researchers suggest that individuals need to "pack your own parachute" to remain employable in an increasingly volatile labor market (Feldman, 1996; Fugate et al, 2021). As job demands and requirements are changing more rapidly than before, both research and industry reports suggest a sustainable career requires constantly maintaining the latest skills and staying updated with job market needs (De Cuyper et al., 2012; World Economic Forum, 2020). Thus, external job mobility can be one strategy that individuals may use to develop their human capital resources (Feldman, 1996). This is consistent with research that suggests individuals may change jobs to seek

employment opportunities that can provide them with valuable resources in securing future employment with another employer (Rider & Tan, 2019).

From a human capital perspective, external mobility can be viewed as a means to acquire KSAOs. For example, external movement provides exposure to new teams, technologies, and training opportunities and is associated with greater human and social capital (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Forrier et al., 2015). As such, individuals can hold varying beliefs about the extent that external mobility provides valuable resources to one's career. Individuals with a strong JMM believe that movement between organizations can provide greater access to human capital development. Therefore, individuals may believe external job mobility helps one to develop new competencies, experiences, and networks that will be beneficial to their careers.

In addition to collecting a portfolio of skills and experiences, a strong JMM also believes that external mobility keeps existing human capital relevant by applying them to a new role and environment. For example, prior research suggests external lateral movements can be beneficial in protecting one's skills and competencies by learning new and improved ways of similar work (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Thus, external mobility may be perceived as a means to protect and enhance the transferability of one's human capital.

Signaling Perspective on the Value of External Mobility

From a signaling perspective, individuals may utilize various cues on their resumes to communicate their human capital and potential to prospective employers. Signaling theory is often applied to understand how information can be gathered and communicated in situations of asymmetric information (Karasek & Bryant, 2012; Spence, 1973). Within the employment context, employers have limited information about the human capital possessed by job candidates, therefore they refer to observable cues that may signal a candidate's possession of desirable KSAO's (Bidwell & Mollick, 2015; Morris et al., 2017). For example, a job candidate's education attainment is a cue that sends a market signal to employers that the candidate has a certain level of competencies (Morris et al., 2017). Given that employers are increasingly turning to the external market

for the latest skills and competencies (Cappelli & Keller, 2014), they are more likely to search for cues on resumes that signal a candidate's possession of the latest human capital, new and different perspectives, and ability to cope with the changing nature of work (Karasek & Bryant, 2012; Nelissen et al., 2017). To signal these competencies and attributes, prior research suggests individuals may utilize their records of mobility and movement throughout their careers as cues (Neliseen et al., 2017).

External mobility within one's career can be a strong and observable cue of one's human capital development (Bidwell & Briscoe, 2010; DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). External mobility generally signals a large change for individuals where they are exposed to substantially different training, networks, and environments (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011). Thus, each external movement can signal significantly new experiences and opportunities of individuals. In comparison, the development of human capital is less observable on resumes when individuals have no organizational movement (Morris et al., 2017). Not surprisingly, individuals with a history of external mobility are perceived as possessing stronger adaptability, trainability, and flexibility (Forrier et al., 2015; Nelissen et al., 2017).

Another area of value that external job mobility is believed to bring to careers is signaling one's possession of human capital to prospective employers. A JMM contains beliefs that movement between organizations is valuable to one's career by acting as an observable cue that sends positive market signals about one's development. Specifically, individuals with strong JMMs believe external mobility signals that one's KSAOs are competitive in the job market, which has enabled him or her to secure employment across organizations. Furthermore, strong JMMs believe that a record of external mobility demonstrates one's experience with transitioning between organizations. In other words, external mobility signals one's experience with adapting to different environments, teams, and work requirements. Relatedly, strong JMMs believe that having experiences across different organizations can signal that one has relevant and transferable KSAOs.

On the other hand, lack of external job mobility can also be a cue. Individuals with a strong JMM would view no organizational movement as a cue that sends negative

market signals to prospective employers. The reason being that the absence of mobility provides limited observable cues on one's resume of human capital development and may signal that an individual has had few opportunities for change or progression of skills and experiences. Thus, a strong JMM believes that external job mobility, even lateral mobility that may not be a significant change in the type of work, can signal one's adaptability and continuous development. Finally, individuals with a weak JMM do not believe external mobility sends positive signals to employers. Rather, they believe external mobility sends negative signals on the job market such as lack of loyalty and persistent skill development, which are consistent with the traditional views of external mobility (Becton et al., 2011; Raffiee & Byun, 2020).

Commonalities and Differences Between JMM and Relevant Career Attitudes

To further develop the concept of JMM, we theorize the commonalities and differences between a JMM and relevant career attitudes that also involve aspects of external mobility. We propose that JMM is related to, yet, distinct from organizational mobility preference, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and perceived employability.

Organizational Mobility Preference

Organizational mobility preference (OMP) refers to "the strength of interest in remaining with a single (or multiple) employers" (Briscoe et al., 2006, p.33). Individuals with high OMP are more inclined to cross organizational boundaries and prefer having more employers throughout their careers (Briscoe et al., 2006). In relation to JMM, both OMP and JMM captures an individual's interest towards external mobility. Where JMM diverges from OMP is that JMM encompasses the beliefs about the specific value of external mobility to careers, which may or may not be driving OMP. In contrast, OMP is neutral as to why an individual prefers mobility and can stem from a range of factors such as job dissatisfaction, poor fit with the organization, or simply boredom.

Furthermore, JMM represents an individual's global beliefs about the value of external mobility regardless of one's current employer. While OMP is conceptualized as

an individual's general preference to cross organizational boundaries, its measurement is tied to one's current organization. For example, two OMP items from Briscoe and colleagues' (2006) are "I would feel very lost if I couldn't work for my current organization" and "If my organization provided lifetime employment, I would never desire to seek work in other organizations." Thus, OMP is likely influenced by an individual's attitudes towards his or her current organization and job satisfaction. Not surprisingly, prior research finds OMP is negatively related to work outcomes such as, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Li et al., 2021). Lastly, we contend it is possible to simultaneously possess a strong JMM and weak OMP. For example, individuals may recognize the value of external mobility in developing resources and networks (i.e., a strong JMM), yet they may not prefer changing organizations as it is not conducive to their current career or life stage (i.e., a weak OMP).

Boundaryless Mindset

A boundaryless mindset refers to "one's general attitude towards working across organizational boundaries" (Briscoe et al., 2006, p.33). The boundaryless mindset stems from the overarching concept of boundaryless careers, which are careers that diverge from the traditional linear career path and involves more physical and/or psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). While OMP captures the physical mobility aspect, boundaryless mindset captures psychological mobility (Briscoe et al., 2006). Specifically, a boundaryless mindset views organizational boundaries as more fluid in terms of the nature of work and relationships. Individuals with boundaryless mindsets are enthusiastic about jobs that allow them to work and develop relationships that span across organizations (Briscoe et al., 2006). Thus, they may initiate and pursue work relationships across organizational boundaries (Briscoe et al., 2006). For example, realtors and academic researchers generally engage in work that spans organizational boundaries and have more psychological mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Since a boundaryless mindset is enthusiastic about working across organizations, we expect it to be related to JMM as both mindsets have an openness to crossing organizational boundaries. Similar to a strong JMM, we expect individuals who prefer working across organizations (i.e., a strong boundaryless mindset) to benefit from and appreciate the

resources and development from inter-organizational experiences, such as larger external networks. However, the mindsets are distinct in that JMM is focused on the perceived benefits associated with changing organizations whereas the boundaryless mindset represents attitudes about work and relationships that span organizations and may or may not involve changing organizations.

Job-Hopping Attitudes

Job-hopping involves frequently and voluntarily changing jobs (Lake et al., 2018). Researchers distinguish standard employee turnover (e.g., due to job dissatisfaction or better job alternatives) from job-hopping based on an individual's underlying motives to quit (Lake et al., 2018). Job-hoppers tend to change jobs without apparent motives or better job alternatives, and they follow more irrational impulses such as a periodic "itch" to change jobs (Khatri et al., 2001; Steenackers & Guerry, 2016). Although JMM and job-hopping attitudes are both regarding changing organizations, a JMM encompasses a strategic view of external mobility as a means to enhance career prospects. In other words, a JMM believes in the instrumental value of external mobility whereas job-hopping stems from more irrational impulses. Hence, a JMM and job-hopping have limited similarities, as job-hoppers may or may not believe in the value of external mobility and will seek external mobility regardless of their JMM.

Perceived Employability

Perceived employability is a multifaceted construct that represents an individual's ability to realize job opportunities (Forrier et al., 2015). Beyond simply finding a job, perceived employability is a personal resource that enables individuals to adapt to changes in the labor market and maintain employment over time (Fugate et al., 2021; Thijssen et al., 2008). Individuals with strong perceived employability strive to remain relevant to labor market needs and develop a sense of job security based on their ability to secure potential future jobs (De Cuyper et al., 2012). Meanwhile, individuals with a strong JMM believe that external mobility is a means to remain relevant and competitive in the labor market by developing their human capital and gaining new skills and experiences. In other words, JMM believes that external mobility is one way to build

the personal resource of employability. JMM also includes beliefs that external mobility signals one's ability to transition and adapt to different organizations. Hence, JMM and perceived employability are conceptually related in that both are focused on maintaining relevance and building a sustainable career in the external labor market. Yet, JMM is distinct from perceived employability as JMM represents beliefs about the benefits of external mobility and employability is one of the benefits associated with external mobility.

Developing a Measure of the Job Mobility Mindset

We develop and validate a psychometrically sound measure of JMM across three phases and five independent and diverse samples of employees online. Based on the theoretical conceptualization and definition of JMM, in Phase 1, we generate an initial pool of items, explore and replicate the factor structure, and select a final set of items. In Phase 2, we confirm the factor structure and examine the construct validity including, discriminant, convergent, and divergent validity. Finally, in Phase 3, we examine the predictive validity of JMM by conducting two resume screening experiments to test how raters' JMMs influence job candidate evaluations.

Phase 1: Item Development and Selection

To develop the initial JMM items, we followed a deductive approach to scale development. According to Hinkin (1995, 1998), a deductive approach includes generating an initial set of items based on theoretical conceptualization and clear definition of the proposed construct. This approach is most appropriate when there is a well-articulated theoretical foundation to derive the items (Hinkin, 1995). Thus, the advantage of a deductive approach is the ability to enhance content validity and ensure the items are developed to capture the domain of interest as the items stem directly from the theoretical definition (Hinkin, 1998). In contrast, taking an inductive approach to generate items can involve conducting qualitative interviews with respondents and interpreting their descriptions of the domain of interest (Hinkin, 1998). This approach is more suitable for exploring constructs that are not clearly defined and potential

dimensions that are not identified (Hinkin, 1998). In the case that there is a theoretically defined construct, an exploratory approach would be less appropriate to develop an initial set of items as the they may not measure the intended construct as theorized (Hinkin, 1998). Given that we have developed a theoretical foundation, drawing on human capital and signaling perspectives, to define the JMM and to articulate the beliefs of a JMM, we take a deductive approach to develop the initial set of items. Thus, we proceeded to generate an initial set of 14 items to capture various human capital resources and signaling benefits of external mobility as theorized. The items were scrutinized to ensure they were simple and short statements, not double-barreled, and unique enough to generate variance (e.g., "job mobility increases my skill development" and "job mobility is a good indicator of my employability in the job market").

Exploratory Factor Analysis (Sample #1)

We surveyed 100 working adults on Prolific, which is an online platform to access research participants in exchange for payment. Online panels are frequently used in management research to access a diverse participant pool and have been found to be demographically diverse and representative of the general population and have consistent psychometric characteristics and findings (Aguinis et al., 2021; Casler et al., 2013; Kees et al., 2017). We utilized the filtering capabilities on the Prolific platform to recruit only participants who are currently employed to better capture beliefs and attitudes of current employees. We also added a secondary filter by embedding a question in the survey asking participants again about their work status. We removed one participant who was unemployed and four participants who failed the attention check question, resulting in a final sample of 95. Approximately 15% of participants are from the U.S., 43% are from Canada, and 42% are from the U.K, 45% are female, 61% are Caucasian, and 69% completed at least a bachelor's degree. The average age is 30 and ranges from 18 to 49. The average years of work experience is nine years and ranges from one to 25 years (see Table 1-1 for a summary of the demographics of each sample).

Table 1-1.   Sample Demographics

	Study 1 *N=95*	Study 2 *N=150*	Study 3 *N=273*	Study 4 *N=95*	Study 5 *N=154*
Age					
M	30	32	33	33	32
SD	6	10	10	11	10
Range	18-49	18-66	18-70	19-68	19-75
Gender					
Female	45%	44%	61%	64%	53%
Other	55%	56%	39%	36%	47%
Race					
White	61%	55%	52%	59%	60%
Non-White	39%	45%	48%	41%	40%
Work Experience					
M	9	11	13	13	12
SD	6	8	10	10	10
Education					
Bachelor's or higher	69%	69%	73%	75%	71%
Location					
U.S.A.	15%	49%	38%	24%	43%
Canada	43%	51%	62%	76%	57%
U.K.	42%	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A

We conducted exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with the maximum likelihood extraction method and varimax rotation. To determine which items to retain, we followed guidance from Hinkin (1998) to remove items that were clearly cross-loading or had factor loadings of .60 or less. We removed four items in the first iteration of item elimination based on factor loadings. Then we removed two items that were about the affective aspects of job mobility (e.g., "job mobility makes my career more exciting") which are beyond the scope of our conceptualization of a JMM. We removed one more item about general career growth as it was not clear about the specific resource linked to human capital. Overall, seven items were retained and two unique factors emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The three items related to developing human capital (e.g., skills and new experiences) loaded together, which is referred to as the resources dimension henceforth. The four items related to signals in the job market (e.g., indicators of employability and adaptability) loaded together, which is referred to as the signal dimension henceforth. The reliability of the resources dimension is .80 ($M = 4.29$, $SD =$

.62) and signal dimension is .83 (*M* = 3.88, *SD* = .70). The two dimensions are correlated at .40. The variance explained by the resources dimension is 36% and signaling dimension is 34%, providing a total variance explained of 70%.

Factor Structure Replication (Sample #2)

We sought to replicate the factor structure in a second independent sample. Based on the results from Sample 1, we also made three improvements to the measure. First, we refined the item stems to consistently begin with "External job mobility...". Second, we provided a clear definition of external job mobility in the survey instructions: "External job mobility refers to changing jobs across organizations. This means voluntarily leaving your current organization for a new job in another organization." Lastly, we added two new items in an effort to capture further nuances in JMM beliefs including, "External job mobility allows me to increase my salary," and "External job mobility is a good indicator of my large professional network."

We surveyed 170 working adults on Prolific. We set filters on the platform to ensure participants are employed, residing in Canada or the U.S., and did not participate in our prior study. We included a secondary filter question in the survey about employment status and removed five participants who were either self-employed or unemployed. There were also 15 participants who failed an attention check, resulting in a final sample size of 150. The demographics of the sample is similar to the prior sample (see Table 1 for a summary) however, this sample contains a larger age range (18 – 66 years old) and includes only Canada and the U.S.

Since new items were tested in this study and the item stems were refined, we again conducted an EFA on nine items (i.e., seven items retained from Sample 1 and two new items introduced). The original three items in the resources dimension again loaded strongly onto one factor. However, one item from the original signal dimension (e.g., "External job mobility makes me more marketable") cross-loaded, which was not a surprise. Marketable could be referring to one's human capital or as an outcome of signaling. Due to its inconsistent loading, we removed this item. Of the two new items, one of them was retained as it loaded sufficiently on the signal dimension but the other

cross-loaded and was removed. Table 1-2 contains the final seven items retained and their factor loadings. The results show two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The reliability of the resources dimension is .78 ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .55$) and signal dimension is .76 ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .67$) and the two dimensions are correlated at .41. The resources dimension accounts for 32% of the variance and the signaling dimension accounts for 33%, providing a total variance explained of 65%.

Table 1-2.   Sample 2: Exploratory Factory Analysis Results

		Factors	
Items		**Signal**	**Resources**
1	External job mobility increases my skill development.	.16	**.80**
2	External job mobility helps grow my network.	.24	**.77**
3	External job mobility allows me to gain new experiences.	.09	**.86**
4	External job mobility is a good indicator of my employability in the job market.	**.74**	.26
5	External job mobility is a good indicator of my adaptability to changes in the job market.	**.71**	.41
6	External job mobility is a good indicator of my competitiveness in the job market.	**.85**	.14
7	External job mobility is a good indicator of my large professional network.	**.69**	-.08
	Eigenvalue	3.22	1.35
	Variance Explained	33.26%	31.96%

Note. N = 150. Bolded numbers indicate high factor loadings.

Phase 2: Confirmation of Factor Structure and Construct Validity

In Phase 2, we confirm the factor structure in a third independent sample and explore the construct validity of JMM (i.e., discriminant, convergent, and divergent validity). Through model fit comparisons and bivariate correlations, we examine the relationship between JMM and theoretically related constructs: OMP, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and perceived employability. Drawing on our conceptual distinction, we expect JMM to be distinct, but positively related to (i.e., convergent validity): a) OMP, b) boundaryless mindset, and c) perceived employability. Then, we expect JMM to be distinct, but negatively related to (i.e., divergent validity) job-hopping attitudes. We hypothesize the following relationships of JMM:

Hypothesis 1: JMM can be discriminated from a) organizational mobility preference, b) boundaryless mindset, c) job-hopping attitudes, and d) perceived employability.

Hypothesis 2: JMM is positively related to a) organizational mobility preference, b) boundaryless mindset, and c) perceived employability.

Hypothesis 3: JMM is negatively related to job-hopping attitudes.

In addition, we explore the nomological network of JMM by examining its relationship with individual characteristics and attitudes (i.e., proactive personality, career stage, and job satisfaction). Individuals who have a proactive personality actively creates positive change in their environment beyond normal role or job expectations (Seibert et al., 2001). The career stage represents an individual's stage of career development (Smart & Peterson, 1997). Finally, job satisfaction represents an individual's holistic evaluation of his or her job outcomes relative to expectations (Judge et al., 2017).

Phase 2 Sample and Procedure (Sample #3)

We recruited 303 participants from Prolific and employed the same platform filters as prior studies for employment status and geographic location. We included a secondary question in the survey about employment status and removed two participants who were unemployed. We also removed 25 participants who failed either one of two attention check questions and two participants who completed the survey in two minutes compared to the average completion time of 10 minutes. The final sample size was 273. As summarized in Table 1-1, this sample contains a larger range of work experience (1 – 48 years) and proportion of females (61%) compared to prior samples. Finally, Table 1-3 presents a summary of the measures used in each study.

Table 1-3. **Samples 3 - 5: Summary of Measures**

Measure	Source	Items	Item Example	Sample 3 Reliability	Sample 4 Reliability	Sample 5 Reliability
JMM- Resources dimension		3	External job mobility increases my skill development.	.77	.70	.84
JMM- Signal dimension		4	External job mobility is a good indicator of my adaptability to changes in the job market.	.81	.81	.78
OMP	Briscoe et al. (2006)	5	I like the predictability that comes with working continuously for the same organization.	.80	.86	.69
Boundaryless mindset	Briscoe et al. (2006)	8	I would enjoy working on projects with people across many organizations.	.93		
Job-hopping attitudes	Khatri et al. (2001)	3	I tend to change jobs for no apparent reasons.	.59		
Perceived employability	Rothwell et al. (2008)	3	I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.[1]	.64	.79	.73
Proactive personality	Seibert et al. (2001a) and Bakker et al. (2012)	6	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	.87		
Job satisfaction	Cammann et al. (1983)	3	All in all, I am satisfied in my job.	.95		
Competence	Fiske et al. (2002)	6	This candidate is: Competent, Confident, Capable, Efficient, Intelligent, Skillful.		.89	.91
Interview recommendation	Adapted from Higgins and Judge (2004)	2	I would recommend extending a job interview to this applicant.[2]		.75	.63

Note. N = 273 (sample 3), 95 (sample 4), and 154 (sample 5). JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. A 5-point Likert scale was used (5 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree) unless otherwise noted. See Appendix A for all items in measures.
[1] In samples 4 and 5, perceived employability was adapted to evaluate perceived job candidates' employability instead of perceived self-employability. For example, the sample item was adapted to "This candidate could easily retrain to make himself more employable in other organizations".
[2] The original item asks about "extending a job offer". We adapted this item to "extending a job interview" to reflect more closely to the resume screening process where candidates are shortlisted for interviews first.

Phase 2 Results

Confirmation of Factor Structure. We conducted confirmation factor analysis (CFA) with the seven retained items to confirm the two-factor solution. We compared two potential models: Model 1 included two intercorrelated latent first-order factors and Model 2 included one general factor with all seven items loading on one latent first-order factor. The results show that Model 1 ($\chi^2 = 26.62$, $df = 13$; CFI = .98; TLI = .97, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .04) has excellent fit indices compared to Model 2 ($\chi^2 = 152.83$, $df = 14$; CFI = .80; TLI = .70, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .09) and the models were significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2 = 126.61$; $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .01$). These results confirm the two-factor solution that emerged in the previous EFAs.

Discriminant Validity. To test Hypothesis 1, that JMM can be discriminated from a) OMP, b) boundaryless mindset, c) job-hopping attitudes, and d) perceived employability, we conducted CFA model comparisons. For each related construct, we compared two models: Model 1 included a three-factor model composed of the resources dimension, signal dimension and the related construct, and Model 2 included a first-order factor composed of all the items of JMM and the related construct. For example, when discriminating JMM from OMP, we compared a three-factor model ($\chi^2 = 115.73$, $df = 51$; CFI = .94; TLI = .93, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .07) to a single factor model ($\chi^2 = 588.25$, $df = 54$; CFI = .53; TLI = .42, RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .17). The three-factor model had better fit indices and the models were significantly different ($\Delta\chi^2 = 472.52$; $\Delta df = 3$, $p < .01$). For each related construct, the three-factor model consistently had significantly better fit (see Table 1-4 for CFA results). Thus, Hypothesis 1a to 1c are supported.

Table 1-4.   Samples 3 - 5: Confirmatory Factory Analyses Results

Model	χ²	df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	Δχ²	Δdf	p
			Model fit indices			**Model comparisons**		
Sample 3								
JMM (resources and signal dimension) and OMP								
1-factor	588.25	54	.53	.19	.17	472.52	3	<.001
3-factors	115.73	51	.94	.07	.07			
JMM (resources and signal dimension) and Boundaryless mindset								
1-factor	817.90	90	.68	.17	.17	625.34	3	<.001
3-factors	192.56	87	.95	.07	.05			
JMM (resources and signal dimension) and Job-hopping attitudes								
1-factor	304.58	35	.69	.17	.12	212.95	3	<.001
3-factors	91.63	32	.93	.08	.10			
JMM (resources and signal dimension) and Perceived employability								
1-factor	250.05	35	.75	.15	.09	193.84	3	<.001
3-factors	56.21	32	.97	.05	.04			
Sample 4								
JMM 1-factor	53.49	14	.79	.17	.11	36.40	1	<.001
JMM 2-factors	17.09	13	.98	.06	.05			
Sample 5								
JMM 1-factor	97.57	14	.79	.20	.10	78.29	1	<.001
JMM 2-factors	19.28	13	.98	.06	.03			

Note. $N = 273$ for sample 3, $N = 95$ for sample 4, and $N = 154$ for sample 5. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference.

Convergent Validity. To test Hypothesis 2, that JMM is positively related to a) OMP, b) boundaryless mindset, and c) perceived employability, we examined the bivariate correlations between the two dimensions of JMM and the related constructs. Table 1-5 presents the correlations. As expected, the resources dimension is positively related to OMP ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) but the positive relationship between the signal dimension and OMP is non-significant ($r = .10$, *n.s.*). Both dimensions are positively related to boundaryless mindset ($r = .27$, $p < .01$ and $r = .25$, $p < .01$) and perceived employability ($r = .30$, $p < .01$ and $r = .38$, $p < .01$). Notably, the JMM dimensions are most strongly correlated with perceived employability and weakest with OMP. Hence, Hypothesis 2b and 2c are supported.

Table 1-5.   Sample 3: Correlation and Descriptive Statistics

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	JMM resources	4.37	0.57								
2.	JMM signal	3.97	0.69	.51**							
3.	OMP	2.95	0.83	.18**	.10						
4.	Boundaryless mindset	3.72	0.84	.27**	.25**	.26**					
5.	Job-hopping attitudes	2.05	0.75	.06	.16**	.24**	.30**				
6.	Perceived employability	4.01	0.69	.30**	.38**	.06	.36**	.09			
7.	Job satisfaction	3.76	1.12	.06	.12*	-.20**	.29**	-.13*	.25**		
8.	Proactive personality	3.74	0.73	.17**	.32**	.15*	.58**	.18**	.44**	.28**	
9.	Career stage	0.49	0.50	.03	-.02	.01	-.05	.10	.01	-.05	-.12

Note. $N = 273$. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. Career stage (1= Early career). $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$.

Divergent Validity. To examine divergent validity, we test Hypothesis 3, that JMM is negatively related to job-hopping attitudes. While we find no particular relationship between the resources dimension and job-hopping attitudes ($r = .06$, *n.s.*), there is a significant and positive relationship between the signal dimension and job-hopping attitudes ($r = .16$, $p < .01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not supported.

Nomological Validity. Lastly, we explored the relationships between JMM and individual characteristics and work attitudes including proactive personality, career stage, and job satisfaction. Specifically, we explored how these individual characteristics relate to JMM, OMP, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and employability. Proactive personality is positively and significantly related to all the constructs, while job satisfaction is positively related to the signal dimension of JMM, boundaryless mindset, and employability, and negatively related to OMP and job-hopping attitudes. Finally, career stage is not significantly related to JMM or any of the other mobility-related constructs.

Phase 2 Discussion

In Phase 2, we confirmed the two-factor structure of JMM. We also examined the construct validity of each dimension. Both dimensions of JMM were distinct from conceptually related constructs and especially from OMP, which had a positive but relatively weak correlation with the resources dimension and a non-significant correlation with the signal dimension. The positive relationships between JMM and boundaryless mindset and perceived employability suggests that individuals with stronger JMMs are more comfortable maintaining work relationships across organizations and perceive stronger employability in the job market, perhaps because they are more open to crossing organizational boundaries. Contrary to our expectation, there is a positive and significant relationship between the signal dimension and job-hopping attitudes. This could mean that individuals with job-hopping attitudes (i.e., individuals more inclined to change jobs ad hoc) believe external mobility signals employability and adaptability. However, job hopping attitudes is unrelated to the resources dimension, which suggests job-hoppers are not changing jobs for instrumental reasons such as developing skills and networks.

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Of the individual characteristics we explored, a notable distinction is how job satisfaction relates differently to JMM and OMP. There is a positive relationship between the signal dimension and job satisfaction, which suggests individuals can be concurrently satisfied in their jobs and believe in the signaling benefits of external mobility. In contrast, there is a negative relationship between OMP and job satisfaction, which indicates OMP captures mobility preferences tied to current work experiences.

Phase 3: Predictive Validity in an Applicant Selection Context

Next, we examine the predictive validity of JMM by demonstrating its meaningful impact in the context of applicant selection. Predictive validity examines whether JMM relates to psychological and behavioral outcomes as expected (Hinkin, 1998). An applicant selection context is appropriate to examine the influence of JMM as recruiters refer to resumes, which details one's external mobility, as the main source of information to evaluate candidates (Derous et al., 2015). Thus, recruiters' implicit beliefs about external mobility are likely to influence how they evaluate candidates' suitability and make judgements about candidates' characteristics. Specifically, recruiters with strong JMMs believe in the value that external mobility brings to their careers. These beliefs represent how they view external mobility as part of building a successful and sustainable career. Moreover, these beliefs about the benefits of external mobility can shape how recruiters view and judge other's careers.

We draw on attribution theories to hypothesize how a JMM affects a recruiter's evaluation of job candidates based on candidates' records of mobility. From an attribution perspective, individuals use information to draw causal inferences and conclusions, which in turn influences their expectancies and behaviors (Martinko et al., 2006). Individuals also hold implicit beliefs and stereotypes that are drawn upon to form attributions about others' personal qualities (Martinko, 2006). This attribution perspective is often applied to an applicant selection context where recruiters refer to resume information to form judgements about candidates' skills and abilities (Cole et al., 2007). Thus, we propose that a recruiter's JMM will influence how mobility information on resumes is interpreted and the attributions formed about a job candidate's qualities.

Recruiters with strong JMMs believes that external mobility provides beneficial resources to one's career and signals one's competitiveness on the job market. Thus, their implicit beliefs about the value of external mobility and what constitutes a sustainable career are likely to shape how they evaluate job candidates. We propose recruiters with strong JMMs will view job candidates who have a track record of external mobility as possessing a strong reservoir of human capital resources. They will also interpret a job candidate's external mobility as signals that the individual has diverse experiences, ability to adapt to different environments, and has a large professional network. In contrast, recruiters with weak JMMs hold more traditional beliefs about external mobility such that mobility reflects a lack of persistent human capital development and specialization. Recruiters with weak JMMs will also perceive frequent mobility as an impediment to developing networks. Thus, rather than signaling adaptability or competitiveness, a weak JMM interprets external mobility as signals of career instability and uncertainty. Hence, we expect recruiters with stronger JMMs (compared to weaker JMMs) to evaluate candidates with a record of external mobility more favorably and attribute the candidates as more competent due to the possession of human capital, as well as stronger employability (i.e., the ability to adapt to changes in the labor market and maintain employment over time; Fugate et al., 2021). As such, candidates with more external mobility will receive higher interview recommendations from recruiters with stronger JMMs. We predict the following:

> *Hypothesis 4: Job candidates with higher external mobility will be evaluated more favorably on: a) competence, b) employability, and c) interview recommendation by raters with stronger JMMs.*

Sample 4 Procedure

We conducted an experiment involving a resume screening task where participants evaluated two job candidates: a high and low external mobility candidate. We designed a within-subject procedure where participants were exposed to both candidates. This approach reflects more closely to "real-world" recruiting scenarios where recruiters must screen and compare different applicants, not just one applicant (Derous et al., 2015; Olian et al., 1988).

The study included four parts: the JMM measure, a filler task, a resume screening task, and demographic measures. In Part 1, we measured JMM using the validated measure. In Part 2, participants were asked to unscramble a series of word puzzles. The purpose of this activity is to create a temporal and psychological separation between measuring the JMM and the resume screening task. The inclusion of activities can reduce common method biases and in particular, demand effects where participant responses can be biased by their assumptions of the research objectives (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In Part 3, participants conducted a resume screening task. They were presented with a hiring scenario and asked to assume the role of a recruiter in evaluating two job candidates (See Figure 1-1 for the hiring scenario). Both candidate profiles were presented simultaneously on the same survey page, therefore randomizing the order of profiles was not necessary. Lastly, Part 4 included questions about individual characteristics and demographics. We also randomized the ordering of Part 1 (JMM measure) and Part 3 (hiring scenario) of the survey to reduce demand effects.

Figure 1-1.   Sample 4 Hiring Scenario

Imagine **you are a Recruiter** at a multinational financial services firm.

The Director of the Accounting department has tasked you with **hiring a new Senior Manager of Accounting**. The Director specified that the job candidate must have multinational experience to handle different accounting regulations for corporate offices around the world.

After posting the job on LinkedIn, **you received 2 job candidates**. You want to review their LinkedIn profiles carefully before presenting your recommendation to the Director.

Please carefully review the LinkedIn profiles on the next page. You will be asked to evaluate each candidate.

Materials. We designed fictional LinkedIn[1] profiles for two potential job candidates. Aligned with prior studies using fictional social media profiles (e.g., Roth et al., 2020), we perused different LinkedIn profiles and modelled the fictional profiles after real profiles. We designed the candidate profiles to differ most apparently in their level of external mobility, which was manipulated by the number of prior employers listed. The low external mobility candidate has only two employers (i.e., one external movement) over the span of 13 years and the high external mobility candidate has six employers (i.e., five external movements) over the span of 13 years. This may be considered a conservative high level of mobility as industry reports suggest the average tenure of employees today is between two to four years (Berger, 2016; Doyle, 2021). Ultimately, the first and current jobs of the two candidates are the same to ensure similar level of

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[1] LinkedIn is a professional networking site where users can create profiles and apply to jobs online. LinkedIn has over 722 million users and is widely used by recruiters to source and screen potential job candidates (Roulin & Levashina, 2018; LinkedIn Corporation, 2020).

career progression between the candidates (See Figures 1-2 and 1-3 for the low and high external mobility candidate profiles, respectively).

Figure 1-2.   Sample 4 Low External Mobility Candidate Profile

Figure 1-3.   Sample 4 High External Mobility Candidate Profile

Pilot Study. Before conducting the experiment, we obtained expert opinions about the candidate profiles from a sample of 13 recruiters. The recruiters were attending a University career fair targeting business students and represented a range of organizations (profit and non-profit). Recruiters received a $10 coffee card for their

participation in an online survey. As a manipulation check, recruiters were asked which candidate has a higher level of external mobility and all recruiters selected the high external mobility candidate. Then as an exploratory analysis, recruiters were probed on which candidate displays more experience, skills, knowledge, and networks. The majority of the recruiters selected the high external mobility candidate as displaying more experience (85%), skills (69%), knowledge (69%), and networks (100%).

We also included an open-text question asking recruiters to describe their impression of the candidates. Two example quotes illustrate the attributions that recruiters formed about the candidates based only on candidates' records of mobility: "[The high external mobility candidate] has more diverse experience, whereas I would be concerned that [the low external mobility candidate] would have the ability to adapt to a new position/environment" and "[A candidate] staying at one company is to likely master his craft, build lasting relationships in the organization, become a SME and move to the manager role is positive." The descriptions from the recruiters and manipulation check question provided assurance that our candidate profiles conveyed external mobility differences between the candidates and were able to elicit underlying beliefs of recruiters. Following the pilot study, we made two esthetic updates to the profiles to enhance the salience of external movement.

Sample. We recruited 101 working adults from Prolific who are currently employed, over the age of 18, and living in Canada or the U.S. We removed six participants who failed either one of the two attention check questions, which provided a final sample of 95. The sample demographics are similar to Sample 4 (see Table 1-1).

Measures. See Table 1-3 for a summary of the measures in each study and Appendix A for a full list of measure items. We used the validated JMM measure and aggregated the resources and signaling dimensions for the analyses (CFA results presented in Table 1-4). We included several control variables in our analyses to account for their potential influences. We controlled for OMP to parse its effects from JMM. We also controlled for participants' actual external mobility behavior, which was calculated by dividing the total number of organizations employed at by total years of work

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experience. Management status was controlled for as hiring managers may have more recruiting experience. Lastly, demographic variables including age, sex, race, education, and career stage were controlled for as these factors have been found to influence mobility and career preferences, as well as the recruitment process (Koch et al., 2015; Ng et al., 2005; Rynes & Cable, 2003). All analyses were conducted with and without control variables and the findings were consistent.

Sample 4 Data Analyses and Results

The correlations and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1-6. To test Hypothesis 4, that job candidates with higher external mobility will be evaluated more favorably by raters with stronger JMMs, we conducted hierarchical linear regression analyses. We regressed the control variables in Step 1 and then JMM in Step 2 on a) competence, b) employability, and c) interview recommendation scores for the high external mobility candidate. As seen in Table 1-7, JMM has a positive and significant effect on all three evaluation scores: competence ($b = .64$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .22$), employability ($b = .41$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .12$), and interview recommendation ($b = .63$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = .08$). The results indicate that raters with stronger JMMs evaluate candidates with higher external mobility more favorably. Thus, Hypothesis 4a to 4c are supported.

Table 1-6.   Sample 4: Correlation and Descriptive Statistics

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. JMM	4.20	0.51													
2. JMM resources	4.48	0.48	.75**												
3. JMM signal	3.92	0.73	.90**	.39**											
4. Candidate competence	4.11	0.63	.52**	.34**	.51**										
5. Candidate employability	4.49	0.54	.36**	.35**	.27**	.54**									
6. Interview recommendation	5.90	0.99	.42**	.32**	.38**	.64**	.48**								
7. OMP	2.85	0.96	.29**	.18	.28**	.15	.05	.27**							
8. Management	0.32	0.47	-.12	-.17	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.18	.01						
9. Mobility history	0.48	0.33	.23*	.16	.21*	.30**	.19	.23*	.23*	-.28**					
10. Gender	0.64	0.48	.27**	.21*	.25*	.25*	.15	.27**	.24*	-.15	.15				
11. Age	33.32	10.86	-.19	-.15	-.17	-.22*	-.08	-.30**	-.03	.20	-.51**	-.09			
12. Race	0.59	0.50	-.05	.06	-.11	.02	-.02	-.13	-.14	-.03	-.06	.09	.20		
13. Career stage	0.59	0.50	.10	.01	.13	.20	.07	.22*	.04	-.31**	.45**	.05	-.62**	-.04	
14. Education	0.75	0.44	.14	.10	.13	-.17	-.21*	-.11	.09	.19	.00	-.08	.02	-.04	-.09

Note. $N = 95$. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. Management (1= currently in a management position). Mobility history calculated by dividing total number of organizations employed at by total years of work experience. Gender (1=Female). Race (1=White). Career stage (1=Early career stage). Education (1=Bachelor's degree or higher). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 1-7. **Sample 4: Regression Results on the Evaluation of the High Mobility Candidate**

Variable	Competence				Employability				Interview Recommendation			
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Constant	3.85**	.41	1.37*	.58	4.42**	.37	2.81**	.56	6.06**	.64	3.63**	.98
OMP	.05	.07	-.02	.06	-.01	.06	-.05	.06	.23*	.11	.16	.11
Management	.15	.14	.20	.13	.07	.13	.11	.12	-.20	.22	-.14	.21
Mobility history	.41	.24	.34	.20	.33	.21	.29	.20	-.05	.36	-.12	.35
Gender	.24	.14	.11	.12	.14	.12	.05	.12	.37	.21	.24	.20
Age	-.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	-.02	.01	-.02	.01
Race	.05	.13	.06	.11	-.04	.12	-.03	.11	-.14	.20	-.14	.19
Career stage	.07	.17	.11	.14	-.01	.15	.01	.14	.04	.26	.08	.24
Education	-.26	.15	-.37**	.13	-.26	.13	-.33**	.12	-.21	.22	-.32	.22
JMM			.64**	.12			.41**	.11			.63**	.20
R^2	.18		.39		.10		.22		.22		.30	
ΔR^2			.22				.12				.08	
F(df)	2.30	(8, 86)	6.12	(9, 85)	1.12	(8, 86)	2.65	(9, 85)	3.01	(8, 86)	4.08	(9, 85)

Note. $N = 95$. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. Management (1= currently in a management position). Mobility history calculated by dividing total number of organizations employed at by total years of work experience. Gender (1=Female). Race (1=White). Career stage (1=Early career stage). Education (1=Bachelor's degree or higher). *b* = unstandardized regression coefficient. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Sample 4 Discussion

In Sample 4, we examined the predictive validity of a JMM. We conducted a resume screening experiment to test the effects of a JMM on a rater's evaluation of candidates with high levels of external mobility. As expected, we found that a JMM is positively related to the evaluation of high external mobility candidates, such that they are perceived as more competent and employable, and receive higher interview recommendations by raters with stronger JMMs. Thus, raters' implicit beliefs about the value of external mobility to one's career can influence how they interpret the mobility patterns of job candidates and ultimately, their evaluation of job candidates.

However, there are limitations to our study design in Sample 4. Although the candidate profiles display the same total amount of work experience, starting point in their careers, and current level in their present role, we recognize that the process in which the candidates reached their current roles contain different types of career progression. In other words, the high mobility candidate displays external career progression consisting of promotions moving between organizations, whereas the low external mobility candidate displays internal career progression consisting of promotions within an organization. Therefore, in addition to comparing the candidates based on the level of external movements, raters could have considered differences in internal versus external career progression.

Research suggests that internal and external career progression can signal and result in different career outcomes (Bidwell & Mollick, 2015). Internal progression is traditionally the most desired type of movement and signals an individual's job performance and abilities (Ng et al., 2007). On the other hand, managers with external progression generally hold higher status roles and wages, and reflects an individual's ability to compete in the external market (Bidwell & Mollick, 2015; Ng et al., 2007). Given that internal and external career progression can send different signals to raters, it may be that the evaluation of the high external mobility candidate was contingent on whether the external movements included progression.

We sought to address and control for the potential influence of career progression on the evaluation of high external mobility candidates. Therefore, we conducted a subsequent study with Sample 5 to examine whether the influence of JMM holds regardless of career progression. Research suggests that external mobility without progression (i.e., lateral external movements) is traditionally viewed as an unfavorable type of mobility (Ng et al., 2007). Individuals who engage in lateral external movements are assumed to be driven by job dissatisfaction or due to being laid off (Ng et al., 2007). Despite the rise in lateral movements in contemporary career paths (Chudzikowski, 2012), there still exists contentious beliefs about the role of lateral external mobility in careers. Hence, it is opportune to examine if the JMM beliefs hold for lateral external mobility.

We propose that regardless of progression, raters with strong JMMs will believe that changing organizations can provide new and protect existing human capital through access to new types of training, work experiences, and networks. They also believe lateral external mobility signals one's ability to adapt to different environments and desire to seek new experiences. Therefore, we expect raters with strong JMMs (compared to weak JMMs) to view candidates with a series of lateral external mobility as possessing a valuable reservoir of resources (e.g., skills, experiences, networks) and as competitive talent on the job market. Moreover, we expect raters with weak JMMs to attribute high external mobility candidates without career progression as having developed limited human capital and essentially, as job-hoppers. We again test Hypothesis 4 to investigate whether the Sample 4 findings hold, such that raters with strong JMMs (compared to weak JMMs) evaluate candidates with high external mobility (without career progression) more favorably.

Sample 5 Procedure

In Sample 5, we conducted a second resume screening experiment. We designed a time-separated study to reduce common method biases by creating a temporal separation between our measures (Podsakoff et al., 2012). In Time 1 (T1), we measured individual characteristics (e.g., JMM, OMP, and demographics). After three days, at Time 2 (T2), we invited the T1 participants to complete a resume screening task. Participants were

presented with the same hiring scenario used in Sample 4 but with minor modifications-
the vacancy is for a "Senior Accountant" and the job candidates were specified as
"external job candidates."

      Materials. We updated the two job candidate profiles used in Sample 4 to reflect
a high lateral external mobility candidate and a reference candidate with no external
mobility. Because we wanted to emphasize the manipulation and elicit underlying
implicit beliefs from raters, we designed the two candidates with a large contrast in
mobility- having several lateral external movements or none (see Figures 1-4 and 1-5 for
the updated candidate profiles).

Figure 1-4.   **Sample 5 Low External Mobility Candidate Profile**
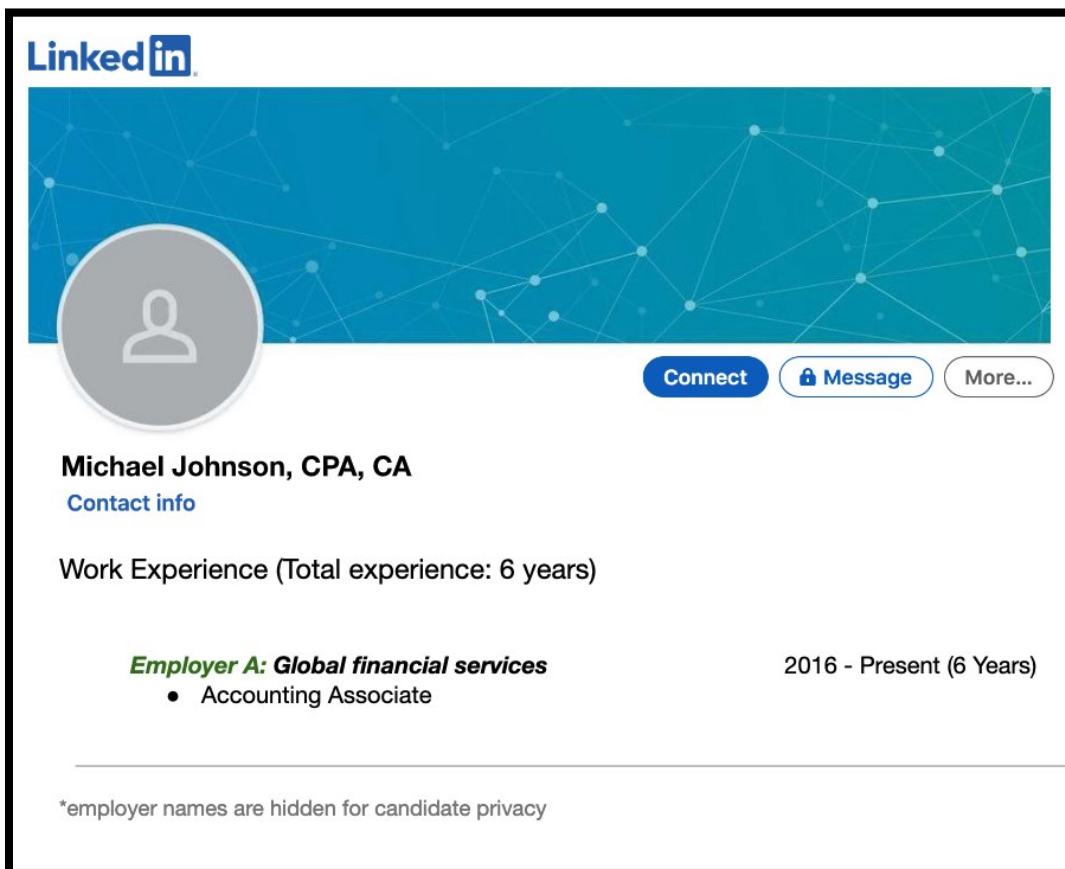
Figure 1-5.   Sample 5 High External Mobility Candidate Profile

Sample. We collected data from 191 employees online on Prolific and included the same platform filters as the prior studies. After removing six participants who failed the attention check and one who is self-employed, the resulting T1 sample is 184. In T2, 167 participants responded to the survey, providing an attrition rate of 91%. We removed three participants due to incomplete responses, eight due to failed attention checks, and two due to lack of variability in the item responses. The final matched sample is 154. See Table 1 for sample demographics.

Measures. As summarized in Table 1-3, we used the same measures and control variables as in Sample 4.

Sample 5 Data Analyses and Results

We replicated the analytic procedure use in Sample 4 and conducted hierarchical linear regression to test Hypothesis 4. Table 1-8 presents the correlations and descriptives and Table 1-9 presents the regression results. There is a positive and significant relationship between a rater's JMM and the perceived competence ($b = .24$, $p < .01$) and employability ($b = .26$, $p < .01$) of the high external lateral mobility candidate. However, although there is a positive relationship between a rater's JMM and the interview recommendation of the high external lateral mobility candidate, this relationship is non-significant ($b = .15$, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 4a and 4b are supported, but 4c is not supported. A JMM provides a .05 increase in variance explained in the model predicting competence and .08 increase in variance explained in employability.

Table 1-8.   Sample 5: Correlation and Descriptive Statistics

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. JMM	4.19	0.59													
2. JMM resources	4.44	0.62	.84**												
3. JMM signal	3.94	0.74	.89**	.49**											
4. Candidate competence	4.23	0.57	.22**	.10	.26**										
5. Candidate employability	4.55	0.51	.27**	.23**	.24**	.44**									
6. Interview recommendation	6.14	0.84	.07	.07	.06	.53**	.40**								
7. OMP	2.86	0.76	.21**	.28**	.10	.04	.03	-.01							
8. Management	0.23	0.42	-.01	.02	-.04	-.12	-.07	-.15	.05						
9. Mobility history	0.64	0.78	-.03	-.01	-.04	.07	-.02	.03	.03	-.12					
10. Gender	0.53	0.50	.03	.03	.02	.01	.08	.10	-.13	-.30**	.08				
11. Age	32.10	10.27	-.16	-.17*	-.11	-.14	-.05	-.04	-.02	.29**	-.30**	-.19*			
12. Race	0.60	0.49	-.16	-.22**	-.07	.10	.06	.05	.00	.10	-.16*	.05	.24**		
13. Career stage	0.57	0.50	.11	.11	.07	.10	.06	.00	-.01	-.38**	.32**	.27**	-.69**	-.12	
14. Education	0.69	0.46	-.04	.02	-.08	-.09	-.07	.00	-.07	.12	.03	-.03	.10	-.08	-.15

Note. $N = 154$. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. Management (1= currently in a management position). Mobility history calculated by dividing total number of organizations employed at by total years of work experience. Gender (1=Female). Race (1=White). Career stage (1=Early career stage). Education (1=Bachelor's degree or higher). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 1-9.   **Sample 5: Regression Results on the Evaluation of the High Mobility Candidate**

Variable	Competence				Employability				Interview recommendation			
	Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2		Step 1		Step 2	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Constant	4.46**	.35	3.48**	.47	4.51**	.31	3.44**	.42	6.36**	.51	5.77**	.71
OMP	.02	.06	-.01	.06	.03	.06	-.01	.06	.01	.09	-.01	.09
Management	-.14	.12	-.16	.12	-.06	.11	-.07	.11	-.31	.18	-.32	.18
Mobility history	.04	.06	.06	.06	-.02	.06	.00	.06	.04	.09	.05	.09
Gender	-.06	.10	-.07	.10	.06	.09	.04	.09	.11	.15	.10	.15
Age	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01
Race	.17	.10	0.21*	.10	.07	.09	.11	.09	.12	.15	.14	.15
Career stage	-.05	.14	-.07	.14	.01	.13	-.01	.12	-.23	.20	-.24	.20
Education	-.05	.10	-.04	.10	-.05	.10	-.04	.09	.05	.15	.05	.15
JMM			.24**	.08			.26**	.07			.15	.12
R^2	.05		.11		.02		.10		.04		.05	
ΔR^2			.06				.08				.01	
F(df)	1.00	(8, 144)	1.90	(9, 143)	.35	(8, 144)	1.76	(9, 143)	.70	(8, 144)	.78	(9, 143)

Note. $N = 154$. JMM = Job mobility mindset. OMP = Organizational mobility preference. b = unstandardized regression coefficient. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Sample 5 Discussion

In Sample 5, we replicated the findings that a JMM influences how raters evaluate job candidates based on the candidates' level of external mobility. Sample 5 extended upon the findings in Sample 4 by investigating whether the JMM beliefs apply to lateral external mobility. Additionally, Study 5 controlled for the potential confound of a candidates' career progression in the relationship between a JMM and candidate evaluations. Regardless of progression, raters with stronger JMMs perceive a high external mobility candidate as more competent and employable, compared to raters with weaker JMMs. However, in Sample 5, a JMM did not significantly predict interview recommendations for the high external mobility candidate. Despite raters with stronger JMMs recognize the human capital possession of the high mobility candidate, this did not translate to higher interview recommendations for the candidate. A potential explanation for raters' reservations about the high external mobility candidate could be that the past mobility behavior of candidates signals their future behavior. Raters may anticipate the high mobility candidate, if hired, will leave in a couple of years and thus, raters may have concerns about whether the organization will capture enough value from the candidate to offset the hiring efforts. This concern may be more prominent for candidates with only lateral external mobility as they appear to leave before progressing in the organization where their value could be derived or realized. Overall, Study 5 demonstrates the influence of a JMM in the applicant selection process and in particular, on job candidates with high external lateral mobility.

General Discussion

We conceptualized JMM as a two-dimensional construct and developed a reliable and psychometrically sound measure of JMM. Through theoretical and empirical distinctions, we demonstrated the unique contribution of JMM to relevant career attitudes including OMP, boundaryless mindset, job-hopping attitudes, and perceived employability. We then illustrated how JMM influences raters' evaluations of candidates, above and beyond OMP. Overall, our research provides an in-depth understanding of

how individuals may view the benefits of external mobility to their careers and how implicit beliefs about external mobility can bias the applicant selection process.

Theoretical Contributions

The JMM is the first construct, to the best of our knowledge, to capture an individual's specific beliefs about the value of external mobility to careers. Although research has highlighted the rise in external mobility and argued for the career benefits of mobility, a concise and cohesive concept was lacking to understand the range of perceptions that individuals hold about the perceived benefits associated with external mobility. The conceptualization of JMM elucidates the implicit beliefs about external mobility and contributes to better understanding how individuals may view, approach, or advise and evaluate others on, external mobility within careers.

Our work contributes to understanding the microfoundations of human capital, in particular the individual level processes to manage one's human capital. A JMM provides in-depth understanding of how individuals may view human capital development within their careers and approach external mobility as a strategy to develop their own human capital. While individual level research on human capital development has focused mostly on individual characteristics that lead employee to seek development opportunities (e.g., self-efficacy) or outcomes of internal development provided to employees (Garavan et al., 2004), we present a different perspective to this body of literature by highlighting contemporary career trends towards more self-managed career development and human capital development strategies. Specifically, we highlight external mobility as one strategy that individuals perceive as a means to achieve and send market signals of human capital development.

Furthermore, our work also contributes to understanding both the employee and employer's perspectives on the value of external mobility. Not only do we theorize how individuals view mobility and attempt to send signals to employers through their mobility patterns, but we also demonstrate how employers (e.g., raters or recruiters) interpret these signals and form attributions about individual human capital and characteristics based on their implicit beliefs about mobility. A common and traditional concern about displaying

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external mobility on resumes is that mobility may signal job-hopping and have detrimental consequences to employment prospects. However, we find in our pilot sample of HR practitioners, that they have relatively strong JMMs on average, meaning they view external mobility as valuable to careers. This is consistent with industry reports that suggest there is less stigma attached to job mobility and gaps in resumes (McKinsey & Company, 2022). Critically, a JMM's influence on the evaluation of job candidates provides evidence that prospective employers can make subjective and biased evaluations of human capital (Raffiee & Coff, 2016; Wright et al., 2011), such that external mobility is an observable cue and heuristic of human capital development for individuals with strong JMMs.

Finally, JMM extends our understanding of employee turnover beyond a single organization. We theorize how individuals perceive external mobility as part of their holistic careers and the benefits of having a series of external mobility throughout one's career. Employees may leave their jobs not because they are dissatisfied but rather, because they believe that by staying, they risk diminishing external employability and being evaluated by prospective employers as inflexible or stagnant in their development. Hence, with a JMM, we can develop a fuller picture of the turnover patterns within an individual's career by considering the global beliefs that individuals may have about the benefits associated with changing organizations within their careers.

Practical Implications

Our work also presents several practical implications. First, we illustrate how implicit beliefs about external mobility can influence the evaluation of job candidates. We develop knowledge on how recruiters form attributions about job candidates and specifically, evaluate job candidates' competence, based on their records of mobility. By generating awareness of the implicit beliefs and potential attribution errors, our work contributes to minimizing recruiter biases and highlights the importance of establishing more valid processes to evaluate human capital. Second, the JMM informs managers on how individuals view external mobility as beneficial to building a sustainable career. Individuals face increasing pressure to be independent and proactive in gaining

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experiences that can build an attractive resume and personal brand (Gorbatov et al., 2019). This places a premium on offering new and different experiences for employees to craft resumes and careers. Thus, managers can better understand why satisfied employees may still keep an eye on the job boards and consider leaving their jobs. Managers can also leverage this knowledge to design human capital development programs that provide similar perceived benefits as external mobility such as, training programs that align with external certification requirements, or more frequent job rotation or promotion opportunities to display movement and activity within careers. In fact, scholars have suggested that supporting employees in building external employability is part of the new psychological contract (Moore & Khan, 2019; Nelissen et al., 2017). Thus, employers may enhance retention by, counterintuitively, promoting internal development opportunities as part of developing employees' external employability (Nelissen et al., 2017).

Limitations & Future Research

There are limitations to our research that may provide future research opportunities. First, we did not examine whether there is a threshold for "too much" external mobility. In our experimental designs, the high mobility candidate changed organizations approximately every two years. Thus, there is an opportunity to explore even higher levels of mobility and examine if the positive, linear effect of a JMM persists. Relatedly, there are likely boundary conditions, such as industry and profession since the average rate of mobility can vary across these factors.

Furthermore, we conceptualized a JMM specific to beliefs about external mobility. This ensures a clearer and more precise construct and addresses our research question on how beliefs about external mobility have evolved. Therefore, we did not explore implicit beliefs about internal mobility and whether these have evolved over time; nor did we compare the perceived value of external and internal mobility to careers. Given that internal mobility is traditionally perceived as a positive career activity, we were interested in how contentious perceptions of external mobility may have shifted in light of increased organizational changes in the labor market. However, this provides a

future research opportunity to compare perceptions of internal and external mobility. For example, future research can investigate how a JMM influences the ranking or choice between candidates with internal or external mobility.

Lastly, our studies rely on data from employees recruited from an online research platform. A main concern with collecting data from online panels is participant inattention (Van Quaquebeke et al., 2022), however there is a growing amount of research that suggests many advantages of employing online panels in organizational research (Mell et al., 2022). We sought to ensure data quality through several measures such as applying attention check questions, maintaining a short and concise survey, and utilizing different response scales (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Conclusion

As external mobility is more frequent in careers today, individuals are more likely to embrace external mobility as part of careers and develop more favorable beliefs about external mobility. To understand individual beliefs about the value of external mobility, we developed a two-dimensional JMM to capture the perceived human capital development and signaling value that external mobility can provide to careers. While individuals traditionally associate external mobility with career instability, we find that these perceptions are evolving such that individuals can hold strong beliefs that external mobility enhances one's human capital and employability in the labor market.

Paper 2.

A Relative Deprivation Perspective on the Influence of Social Media Usage on Work Outcomes

> "I see people on social media, mostly Instagram, traveling for work. They will post pictures in airports or hotels, and it makes me feel jealous. It leads me to think that maybe I should try to find a different job that has better opportunities for travel or more perks than my work-from-home job. I will often look at job boards during the time period that I feel like I am missing out. This only happens when I go on social media and see people talking about enjoying their jobs and the perks of it." (Study 3, Participant #46, Female, 33 years old)

Social media is ubiquitous in employees' personal and work lives (Leonardi & Vasst, 2017; Rothbard et al., 2022). Social media includes online platforms where users can create and share content with large audiences in real-time (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, TikTok, YouTube, etc.). Reports indicate that 90% of young adults use at least one social media platform and 85% use six or more platforms (Barry & Wong, 2020). Moreover, employees spend an average of two hours daily engaging in social media activities (Barry & Wong, 2020; Rothband et al., 2022; Tandon et al., 2021). As part of employees' social media usage, it is common for employees to post about their work experiences, such as their social activities at work, career achievements, working environment, and job changes (Bizzi, 2018). As illustrated by the opening quote, a participant in this study describes her experience viewing work-related content on social media. Similarly, employers also use social media to promote their workplaces such as sharing achievements of the company and employees and posting information about work events and activities (Bizzi, 2018; Tanwar & Kumar, 2019). Not surprisingly, more than a third of the tweets on Twitter are found to contain work-related content (Chu, 2020).

Despite extensive social media usage by working adults, there is limited understanding of the negative consequences of such usage on work outcomes (Bodhi et al., 2021; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; Wang et al., 2020). Social media can disrupt employees' work experiences by providing untethered access to information about work

lives of other individuals and alterative work possibilities (Budnick et al., 2020). It is common knowledge that social media facilitates social comparisons, which can result in adverse psychological consequences (Chou & Edge, 2012). These consequences, including anxiety, depression, and loneliness, are often facilitated by "FOMO" or "fear of missing out", which is defined as an individual's pervasive concern that others are having better experiences than oneself (Baker et al., 2016; Buglass et al., 2017; Dhir et al., 2018; Przybylski et al., 2013; Riordan et al., 2018). Indeed, FOMO is commonly referenced in the media to depict the anxieties of young adults in the digital age (e.g., Wallace, 2016). Yet, there is growing research on FOMO as a widespread outcome of social media usage and its detrimental effects on individual well-being (Baker et al., 2016). Critically, research also shows that FOMO is prevalent across all ages (Barry & Wong, 2020). We contend FOMO can extend to the work domain as working adults also view and share curated highlights of each other's work experiences on social media, which can manifest into an intense concern about the potential of gaining better *work* experiences.

Within the management field, there is a growing body of research examining social media usage in the workplace. However, knowledge on this topic remains limited and disjointed (Leonardi & Vaast, 2017). Research on social media in organizations generally refers to social media as internal communication platforms endorsed by the organization (e.g., Yammer, Slack), also known as enterprise social media (ESM). This is a narrow focus of what constitutes as social media in employees' lives and produces a major limitation in understanding the fuller extent of the effects of social media (at work and outside of work). For example, some studies have found that ESMs can enhance employee productivity through greater knowledge sharing and work-life balance (Bodhi et al., 2021; Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014), while other studies find that ESM hinders productivity due to cyberloafing and information overload (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Colbert et al., 2016; Moqbel et al., 2013; Robertson & Kee, 2017; Kluemper et al., 2016). However, because management studies generally restrict the operationalization of social media to ESMs, it is unclear whether these findings generalize when considering social media usage more broadly across personal and work domains. Thus, to understand the complexities of social media in employees' lives, management scholars have emphasized the need to study social media beyond simply a corporate communication tool and

consider how social media is integrated across employees' personal and work lives as well as, the unique social media behaviors and tendencies that diffuse into the workplace (Colbert et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2021; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; Parry & Solidoro 2013; Wang et al., 2018).

This research has two objectives. The first objective is to examine the effects of employees' social media usage more broadly beyond only corporate platforms. The second objective is to examine the psychological consequences of social media usage, specifically due to the untethered access to information about alternative work experiences on social media. To do so, we introduce "FOMO" (i.e., fear of missing out) to management research. In particular, we examine the experience of FOMO in the work domain to capture employees' pervasive concern for better *work* experiences and call this "FOMO-*work*". We draw on the theory of relative deprivation (RDT), which suggests individuals can form subjective and unfavorable evaluations of themselves resulting in negative emotions and outcomes when conducting social comparisons (Crosby, 1976; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984). RDT helps to understand how FOMO-*work* and adverse work outcomes can manifest in employees due to social comparisons conducted on social media. Across four studies, we examine the effects of social media intensity (i.e., the extent to which individuals have social media integrated in their lives; Steinfield et al., 2008) and FOMO-*work* on work outcomes that are commonly studied in ESM research. First, in a pilot study of employees online, we explored the prevalence of FOMO-*work* in a group of working adults. Second, we conducted a field study at a consulting firm to examine FOMO-*work* as a distinct mechanism linking social media intensity and employee attitudes and well-being including job satisfaction, employee engagement, and emotional burnout. Finally, we conducted two experimental studies with online panels of employees to prime FOMO-*work* and examine the effects on employees' attraction to external opportunities.

This research provides several contributions. First, we expand the knowledge on the work-related psychological experiences that employees may have from their social media usage. We illuminate how social media can be intertwined in the lives of working adults and its effects on work outcomes, which is a step towards expanding social media

research in the management field beyond ESMs. Second, we introduce FOMO-*work* as a state that is specific to the work context. While extant research examines FOMO as trait, where individuals can hold a consistent and pervasive concern about better social experiences, FOMO-*work* captures more specific concern about work experiences and can be more transient. Thus, FOMO-*work* is a more proximal mechanism to work outcomes as it pertains specifically to work-related content. Thus, our work contributes to research on FOMO by extending the concept as a state that can be context-specific and by elucidating the theoretical and empirical distinction between FOMO-*work* and FOMO-*trait.* Lastly, we extend the application of RDT to the social media context. Social media provides a unique context to study RDT as the environment allows employees to share the best highlights of their work and life experiences (Chou & Edge, 2012) and as a result, is highly conducive to social comparisons and forming negative evaluations of oneself. Thus, we illustrate how deprivation can manifest in the social media context. Taken together, our work responds to calls for new and more relevant theory on the influence of social media on employees work experiences and research examining the psychological consequences of social media (Colbert et al., 2016; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015; Parry & Strohmeier, 2014; Zhang et al., 2019).

Overview of Research on Social Media

Given that social media research is nascent and rapidly developing across a variety of fields (Wilson et al., 2012), we provide a brief overview of the commonly examined topics on social media. To start, social media has dramatically changed the way people communicate, develop relationships, and acquire information (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Individuals of all ages can have social media intertwined in their daily lives (Rothbard et al., 2022). Not only do many people begin and end their days by browsing their social media, but also, they may "passively scroll" social media routinely throughout the day (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Hence, social media is widely used and integrated in individual's lifestyles and can be associated with unique psychological consequences (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014).

Social media is simultaneously associated with many benefits and adverse consequences. For example, social media provides the ability to voice opinions and share information quickly to large audiences (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Individuals can also develop larger networks and connect with online communities to seek social support and reduce loneliness (Thomas et al., 2020). However, this constant connectivity comes at a cost to individuals' psychological well-being (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Social media users can face immense pressures to be constantly available, respond to prompts, and be aware of the latest information and happenings on social media (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Thus, intense social media usage is shown to be associated with psychopathological disorders (Wegmann et al., 2017) that have similar symptoms as addictive behaviors such as gambling and substance abuse (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014).

Social media research is rapidly growing across a variety of fields, including psychology, education, management, communication, information technology, and more (Wilson et al., 2012). Some broad domains of research on social media include user characteristics (e.g., demographics, personality traits; Lin et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018), user intentions (e.g., passive vs. active users, utilitarian vs. social intentions; Benson et al., 2019), and psychological outcomes (e.g., depression, life dissatisfaction, aggression, FOMO, cyberbullying; Baker et al., 2016; Przybylski et al., 2013; Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Within the management field, research on social media is even more disjointed (El Ouirdi et al., 2015; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017). Some broad domains include employer uses of social media (e.g., cybervetting, employer branding, employee collaboration, Berkelaar, 2017; Robertson & Kee, 2017; Tanwar and Kumar, 2019), employer concerns with social media (e.g., privacy, employee online conduct, cyberloafing; El Ouirdi et al., 2015), and employee outcomes (e.g., employee satisfaction, performance, work-life balance; Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Leftheriotis & Giannakos, 2014; Moqbel et al., 2013).

As noted earlier, the limited management research on social media has largely focused on ESMs and specifically, how ESMs can enhance employee satisfaction and productivity. For example, several studies have found a positive relationship and credited this association to greater employee connections and collaboration (Bizzi, 2020; Budnick et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2020; Men et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). In addition,

researchers argue social media enhances employee satisfaction through enhanced work-life balance, social support, and sense of belonging (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Bodhi et al., 2021; Moqbel et al., 2013). However, social media (outside of ESM) is known as a major source of distraction which hinders an individual's task concentration and ability to be present in the moment (Bizzi, 2020; Moqbel et al., 2013). In fact, one study found that 43% of organizations surveyed have policies that block employee access to social media platforms at work to prevent distraction (Haddud et al., 2016). Another study suggests ESMs can adversely influence job engagement when employees are not comfortable voicing their opinions in a transparent online environment (Martin et al., 2015; Parry & Solidoro, 2013). Nonetheless, one area of consensus across studies is that social media usage including ESMs is linked to higher emotional burnout (Charoensukmongkol, 2016; Han, 2020; Yu et al., 2018). Employees on social media are subject to information and communication overload and the demands of juggling online work and personal activities (Charoensukmongkol, 2016; Fridchay & Reizer, 2022; Yu et al., 2018).

Notwithstanding the work on ESMs, researchers continue to call for more research to understand the effects of social media on employees (Chu, 2020; Leonardi & Vasst, 2017; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). In light of the limitations of current management research, we take a broader view of social media to consider employees' social media usage beyond ESMs. Specifically, we examine the relationship between social media intensity and FOMO-*work* on work outcomes that are commonly examined in ESM research: job satisfaction, job engagement, and emotional burnout. As a result, this study illuminates whether and which research findings on ESMs are generalizable or contrast the effects of social media more broadly. We also examine the additional outcome of "attraction to external opportunities" given that social media provides untethered access to information about external opportunities and the work experiences of external networks (Bizzi, 2018). Figure 2-1 presents our research model tested in this paper.

Figure 2-1.   Theoretical Model
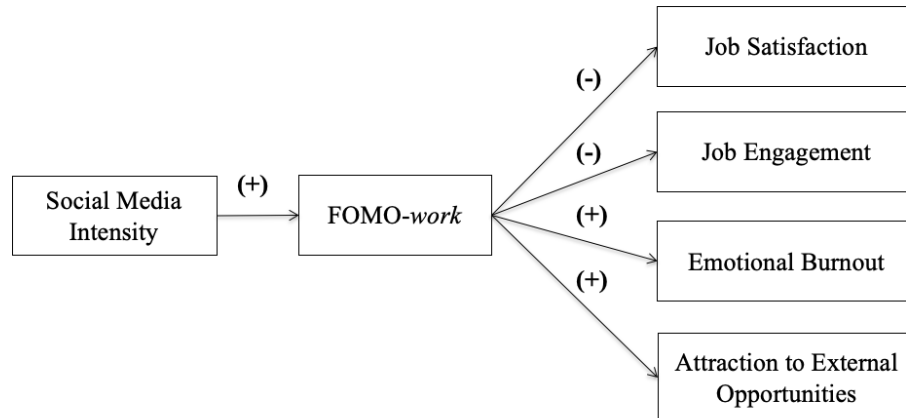
Relative Deprivation Perspective on Employees' Social Media Usage

Employees commonly evaluate their work experiences by comparing their outcomes to those of others (Festinger, 1954). This reflects human nature's desire to make sense of one's situation by seeking comparative reference points (Festinger, 1954). However, through these comparisons, individuals may conclude that their situation is inferior in comparison to others. The theory of relative deprivation (RDT; Crosby, 1976; Walker & Pettigrew; 1984) helps explain this process where individuals conduct subjective comparisons and form negative judgements about their situation relative to others. Importantly, RDT helps explain why objectively well-off individuals would perceive or feel otherwise (Cho et al., 2014; Crosby, 1976; Feldman & Turnley, 2004; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984). In the work context, RDT explains why employees are dissatisfied with their work situation despite the absolute and tangible benefits they receive (Ng & Feldman, 2008).

Furthermore, RDT contains both cognitive and emotional components (Crosby, 1976; Walker & Pettigrew; 1984). The cognitive component refers to the subjective comparison process where individuals judge their situation relative to others. The emotional component refers to the negative emotional outcomes resulting from the discrepant evaluation of one's own situation (e.g., resentment, anger, deprivation; Walker

& Pettigrew, 1984). Seminal studies on RDT examine how social comparisons can result in relative deprivation as a specific emotional outcome, which includes feelings of injustice and resentment (Crosby, 1976). Subsequent studies in management have extended RDT to examine how subjective comparisons can hinder work outcomes. In particular, studies applied RDT to understand how employees' subjective comparisons can adversely affect their work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of underemployment) and performance (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Kraimer et al., 2009; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2006; Zoogah, 2010). Therefore, RDT helps to explain how and why employees' subjective comparisons can result in negative work outcomes.

Subjective Comparisons in the Social Media Context

Individuals on social media are prone to engage in social comparisons and form subjective and unfavorable evaluations of oneself (Chou & Edge, 2012), making social media a prime context to study RDT. Specifically, social media contains an abundance of information about the work lives of others, as well as job opportunities. Examples of work-related content that employees may post on social media include work achievements, social events with colleagues, new initiatives at their workplaces, corporate travel and conferences, and career advancements. Social media also makes visible the interactions between colleagues online, which can generate comparisons between each other's work networks and social interactions (Leonardi & Vaast, 2017). Additionally, employers may use social media to promote their best organizational characteristics and benefits (Bizzi, 2020). Thus, not only do employees readily have access to information about work alternatives, but they can also form judgements about the work lives of others, which, in turn, may affect expectations for their own work experiences.

Moreover, social media users tend to selectively share their best experiences and curate their posts (e.g., pictures, videos, comments, etc.) to presents themselves in the most ideal way (Chou & Edge, 2012; Colbert et al., 2016; Reer et al., 2019). In other words, social media users, as creators and consumers of this information, view

overwhelmingly more positively framed experiences of others (Chou & Edge, 2012). Despite knowing information on social media can be distorted, social media users still actively engage in social comparisons with unrealistic ideals (Chou & Edge, 2012; Reer et al., 2019). Taken together, the social media environment exacerbates human nature to engage in social comparisons, which likely result in unfavorable evaluations of oneself (Chou & Edge, 2012).

As this is one of the first studies to examine the comparisons that working adults make on social media, we have included illustrative quotes throughout our theory development that were submitted by participants in our studies[2]. In line with prior research that examines novel topics and contexts such as social media, illustrative quotes help to enrich and contextualize new theory development (Rothbard et al., 2022). Thus, the aim of including personal narratives from participants is to develop a more nuanced understanding of the experience of working adults on social media. Across our studies, we find numerous examples of how social media usage influences subjective comparisons on one's work situation. The following participants shared their reactions to and interpretation of the information they view on social media. For example, Participant #121 describes the work-related content that is frequently found on social media.

> "Every time I log onto social media, especially platforms like LinkedIn, it always seems that somebody has just got promoted, or a new job, or won an award. I find it very wearying." (Study 3, Participant #121, Female, 56 years old)

Participant #34 suggests that comparisons on social media defy logical reasoning. Although she is aware that the content may not reflect reality, comparisons still naturally occur.

> "I think social media creates this sort of image where everyone's job seems ideal because who wants to post pictures and stuff about crappy experiences? We want our lives to look perfect. So yeah, it's hard to view social media without feeling major sense of 'what if' and wondering if there could be something better. It's hard not to feel unhappy where you are when

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[2] Details about the procedures and sample of the studies are outlined in the methodology section.

everyone appears to be in a better place." (Study 2, Participant #34, Female, 34 years old)

Finally, both Participants #82 and #47 demonstrate how individuals can make attributions about the quality of others' work lives. Specifically, Participant #82 infers other's job fulfillment from social media: "I see how happy and fulfilled they are in their job" and Participant #47 gathers from social media that others have "what appears to be not such a stressful life/job."

> "When I look through social media and see my peers succeed. I see how happy and fulfilled they are in their jobs. They also appear financially stable. It makes me wonder if I should have followed a similar career path. It makes me doubt the path that I chose." (Study 3, Participant #82, Female, 29 years old)

> "I often see posts made by friends that make me envious of what appears to be not such a stressful life/job. The potentially better experiences I feel I'm missing out on include having close workplace relationships (which I do not), having a better out of work social life (which I can't due to my work schedule)." (Pilot study, Participant #47, Female, 44 years old)

Social Media Intensity and FOMO-*work*

To understand the psychological consequences of comparisons made on social media, we consider employees' *social media intensity* (SMI). SMI represents an individual's level of engagement on and emotional connection to social media (Steinfield et al., 2008). Given that social media can form a large part of individuals' lives including their identities, communities, and lifestyles, it is important to capture the integration of social media in an individual's life beyond simply time spent on social media (Colbert et al., 2016; Steinfield et al., 2008). Individuals with higher SMI not only invest more time and energy into their social media activities but also value social media as part of their lifestyle (Steinfield et al., 2008). For example, individuals with higher SMI may intentionally structure their days to begin and end with social media activities and they may experience unease if deterred from this routine (Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Moreover, their psychological well-being and sense of self-worth can be highly tied to their social media activities (Steinfeld et al., 2008; Vogel et al., 2014). Therefore, individuals with higher SMI are likely to place greater emphasis on information and

referents on social media. In line with RDT, subjective comparisons are more consequential for individuals when the referents, basis of comparison, and/or information sources are personally important (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984). Taken together, while social media can provide an abundance of comparison opportunities, the psychological consequences are more severe for those who place personal importance on the comparisons.

Furthermore, social media usage is strongly associated with FOMO (i.e., fear of missing out)- a pervasive concern that one is missing out on more rewarding experiences that others are having (Przybylski et al., 2013). Given that social media users are constantly viewing others' positive experiences, they are prone to evaluate their own experiences as insufficient and develop an intense concern that they could be having better experiences. Rather than being in the present, individuals with stronger FOMO are trapped in constant rumination about potential alternatives (Przybylski et al., 2013). They are also more likely to engage in "herd behaviors" which is the impulse to follow others without any rational reason (Kang et al., 2020). In other words, individuals with stronger FOMO may participate in an activity not necessarily because they are interested, but rather, they perceive others are having a good time. Thus, through FOMO, social media usage can have detrimental effects on mental well-being including depression, anxiety, insomnia, loneliness, and life dissatisfaction (Baker et al., 2016; Chou & Edge, 2012; Dhir et al., 2018; Riordan et al., 2018).

Prior research on FOMO generally examines FOMO as a trait related to how people respond to general social experiences (e.g., Baker et al., 2016, Dhir et al., 2018; Przybylski et al., 2013). However, seminal research by Przybylski et al. (2013) suggests that FOMO can exist beyond a trait and be triggered by situational factors. The distinction between states and traits is often based on consistency of behavior and variability across situations and over time (Fridhandler, 1986; Steyer et al., 2015). Traits are known as dispositions or individual differences that are relatively stable across different situations (Cheng & McCarthy, 2018). In comparison, states are within-person differences that fluctuate and are often triggered by immediate situational factors (Cheng & McCarthy, 2018). Drawing on the distinction between traits and states, individuals

with trait FOMO are likely to have consistent levels of concern about better experiences across different situations whereas, individuals with state FOMO are likely triggered by a specific situation and the level of concern may fluctuate by situation. Moreover, it is important to distinguish between traits and states because they can relate differently to outcomes depending on the general or context-specific nature of the outcome (Kluemper et al., 2009).

We extend the research on FOMO by examining FOMO as a state that is unique to the work context. Management scholars have suggested FOMO can manifest particularly regarding work experiences and is yet to be explored (Budnick et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018). Thus, we conceptualize FOMO-*work* (i.e., fear of missing out on better work experiences) which pertains specifically to work experiences. FOMO-*work* represents an individual's intense concern that there are better *work* experiences. Where trait FOMO holds a general and consistent concern about better experiences across situations, FOMO-*work* captures employees' specific concerns about work experiences. This means that individuals with trait FOMO may be more likely to experience FOMO-*work* as trait FOMO can be consistent across situations. However, individuals without trait FOMO can still experience FOMO-*work* if triggered by situational factors. Taken together, by capturing the intense anxiety and concern that employees have on missing out on better work experiences, FOMO-*work* is a more precise and proximal link to work outcomes than trait FOMO. Henceforth, we refer to FOMO specific to the work context as "FOMO-*work*" and FOMO as a trait as "FOMO-*trait*".

What constitutes as a "better work experience" can be unique to each employee. As RDT suggests, individuals engage in subjective comparisons (Walker & Pettigrew, 1984). Rather than referring to objective factors such as salary and job level, individuals can base their comparison on factors that are personally salient (e.g., job or life satisfaction, colleague and managerial relations, networking opportunities) and even perceptions of others' outcomes (e.g., perception that others are more satisfied). In other words, employees can experience FOMO-*work* towards different types and aspects of work experiences. For example, FOMO-*work* may be triggered for some employees when they view pictures and videos about other's work trips, whereas others may

experience FOMO-*work* when they view employer ads on social media about particular employee benefits. To illustrate examples of unique triggers of FOMO-*work* and perceptions of better work experiences, several participant quotes are presented here. These participants mention many aspects of work that trigger their FOMO-*work* including travel opportunities, company ethics, pay and vacation benefits, and work-life balance. Notably, across these quotes, participants describe their judgement of other's work lives based on what they view on social media and evaluate other's work lives as more desirable than their own.

> "Seeing people on YouTube having fun experiences traveling across the world for their work made me feel jealous … I feel like I am missing out on a line of work that would feel more thrilling to me." (Pilot study, Participant #49, Male, 24 years old)

> "I see people online working in my field who make more money than me. Sometimes they work for more ethical companies. I feel other people I see online get more vacation time and more recreational time at work. A lot of people online seem to get to have more varied experiences at work which makes me feel I am missing out. Some posts online show people who have a better work/life balance than myself and I find myself wishing I could work for one of these other companies." (Study 3, Participant #115, Male, 57 years old)

> "Sometimes when on social media, seeing others with different job perks I sometimes feel like I am missing out. I feel like I should be getting paid more so when others seem to be spending more I feel like I am missing out on something else. When others are going to work parties, that I do not have, I feel like those perks would be great. More time off people posting about vacations and working from home or away sometimes make me feel jealous." (Study 3, Participant #133, Female, 37 years old)

In summary, employees with a stronger SMI have social media intertwined in their lives such that their social media activities can shape their identity (Steinfield et al., 2008; Parry & Solidoro, 2013). Not only are they subject to persistent exposure to positively framed work experiences on social media, but they are also more likely to feel concerned about how their work situation compares with this information. This is aligned with research that suggests constant exposure to others' work lives and experiences will lead individuals to imagine alternatives for themselves (Burgess et al., 2022). Thus, we expect employees with a stronger SMI are more concerned about the potential of better

work experiences due to more exposure to work alternatives and emphasis on comparisons conducted with information on social media. In other words, we expect SMI to be positively related to FOMO-*work.*

Further, we also expect the association between SMI and FOMO-*work* to persist beyond FOMO-*trait*. Given that FOMO-*work* is situation-driven, the intensity of FOMO-*work* can fluctuate depending on different content or referent triggers on social media. Moreover, FOMO-*work* can be triggered in individuals regardless of them having FOMO-*trait*. Therefore, we expect SMI to be distinctly related to FOMO-*work* beyond FOMO-*trait.*

> *Hypothesis 1: Social media intensity is positively related to FOMO-work, after accounting for FOMO-trait.*

Linking Social Media to Work Outcomes through FOMO-*work*

FOMO-*work* serves as an important theoretical mechanism to explain how employees' SMI can influence their work outcomes. We first theorize how SMI influences employee work attitudes and well-being including job satisfaction, employee engagement, and emotional burnout, through FOMO-*work.* After examining this set of outcomes, we then theorize the relationship between FOMO-*work* and attraction to external opportunities.

To start, job satisfaction represents an individual's evaluation of his or her job outcomes relative to expectations (Judge et al., 2017). It is common for employees to look for information external of their organization to form work expectations and evaluate their jobs (Ng & Feldman, 2008). Employees with a stronger SMI are more likely to refer to information on social media to form work expectations and evaluate their job satisfaction. Unfortunately, as established, information posted on social media is overwhelmingly positively framed and polished. Thus, employees on social media often compare their work situations with the highlights of other's experiences. The constant exposure to overly positive work experiences can trigger FOMO-*work* in employees such that they evaluate their current work situation as inferior (Burgess et al., 2022; Han et al.,

2020; Judge et al., 2017). Hence, we expect similarly that employees experiencing FOMO-*work* will be less satisfied in their jobs and work accomplishments.

Hypothesis 2: Social media intensity is negatively related to job satisfaction, through FOMO-work, after accounting for FOMO-trait.

Next, employees' SMI can also influence their job engagement. Engaged employees have a positive and energetic state of mind as well as high levels of persistence, pride, enthusiasm, and concentration in their work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). They are also more present and engrossed in their work roles (Kumar & Sia, 2012; Walden et al., 2017). However, employees with stronger SMI are less likely to be engaged in their jobs because they are more attuned to and concerned about better work and life experiences that one could potentially be having. They may experience intermittent triggers of FOMO-*work* from their social media activities, which reduces their ability to be fully engaged and present in their work. Further, employees in a state of FOMO-*work* are intensely ruminating about the potential benefits and excitement of alternatives. Overall, their concern about better work alternatives, as portrayed on social media, limits concentration and focus in their work. Thus, we expect SMI to be negatively related to job engagement through FOMO-*work*.

Hypothesis 3: Social media intensity is negatively related to job engagement, through FOMO-work, after accounting for FOMO-trait.

Finally, prior work has found a strong association between social media usage and emotional burnout (Charoensukmongkol, 2016). Employees who are emotionally burnt out are under severe and prolonged stress such that they feel depleted (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Research generally links social media usage to emotional burnout through increased communication demands and information overload. However, another psychological mechanism that can explain how SMI enhances emotional burnout is FOMO-*work*. Employees experience burnout when they expend excessive emotional energy such that their mental resources are depleted (Jackson et al., 1986). Burnout can also stem from a weak sense of accomplishment and unmet expectations (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). As noted, employees with a strong SMI are more likely to experience

FOMO-*work* from ongoing social comparisons with others on social media. Employees experiencing FOMO-*work* are not only expending excessive emotional energy and mental resources ruminating about potentially better work experiences, but they are also undermining their own work accomplishments by questioning what could be improved. Thus, the intense concern and anxiety about work alternatives is emotionally taxing on employees. Additionally, similar to FOMO-*trait,* employees experiencing FOMO-*work* have a need to be constantly aware of the latest work opportunities and stay updated with others' work experiences (Przybylski et al., 2013), which can also add to the emotional burden of SMI. Taken together, we expect employees with stronger SMI to experience more FOMO-*work* and in turn, higher emotional burnout.

> *Hypothesis 4: Social media intensity is positively related to emotional burnout, through FOMO-work, after accounting for FOMO-trait.*

Methodology

Overview of Studies

First, we conducted a pilot study with an online panel of employees on the platform, Prolific, to examine the prevalence and frequency of which working adults experience FOMO-*work*. Although many studies have examined FOMO-*trait*, our study is the first to examine FOMO-*work* specific to the work domain. Thus, we collected descriptive information and narratives from participants regarding their experiences of FOMO-*work.* The pilot study illustrated that employees are not only familiar with FOMO-*work*, but also, that it is a frequent occurrence for many employees. Then, we conducted Study 1 to test Hypotheses 1 to 4 in a field study with employees at a consulting firm. To complement the findings and mitigate design limitations of the field environment, we conducted subsequent time-separated experiments to in Studies 2 and 3 to prime FOMO-*work* and test Hypothesis 5 (proposed below) with online samples of employees.

Pilot Study: Exploring the Prevalence of FOMO-*work*

Pilot Sample and Procedure

We collected pilot data on FOMO-*trait* and FOMO-*work* from 100 working adults in an online survey on Prolific. An online panel allowed us to study FOMO-*work* in a more diverse sample of participants in age, and work and life experiences. After filtering for participants who are currently employed and passed the attention check question embedded in the survey, the final sample size is 95. The sample is composed of approximately 15% of participants from the U.S., 43% from Canada, and 42% from the U.K. About 45% are female and 67% have at least a bachelor's degree. The average age is 30 and average years of work experience is nine.

Participants were randomly assigned to a group: FOMO-*work* or FOMO-*trait*. We designed the pilot with these two groups to gauge the extent to which participants can relate to FOMO in their work versus personal lives. Each group was presented with a vignette of a fictional person, "Amy". In the FOMO-*work* group, participants read about Amy's experience of FOMO-*work*. In the FOMO-*trait* group, participants read about Amy's FOMO-*trait* regarding her general life experiences with no reference to work. Of the sample, 45 participants saw the FOMO-*work* vignette and 50 saw the FOMO-*trait* vignette. The content of the vignettes was as follows, with the distinction for FOMO-*work* in the brackets […]. The vignettes were designed to align closely with extant literature that describes the experience of FOMO-*trait* (e.g., Przybylski et al., 2013; Roberts & David, 2020).

> "Amy is generally content with her **[work]** experiences. However, Amy is concerned that there are potentially better **[work]** experiences that she may be missing out on. She frequently hears about different **[work]** experiences from her personal networks and sees social media posts by her friends and **[colleagues/family]** about their **[work]** experiences. She also receives automated email updates about **[new job postings available/events happening]** near her. Amy frequently imagines the potential of better **[work]** experiences for herself, although she is not absolutely sure what that would look like. When she has these thoughts, she cannot concentrate well **[on her work]** and feels unhappy in the moment."

After reading the vignette, participants were asked to rate how often they have similar thoughts and/or feelings as Amy on a scale of 1 ("Never") to 5 ("Always"). This question assessed the frequency that participants experienced FOMO-*work* or FOMO-*trait*. Then, participants were asked to think about a time when they experienced similar emotions and/or feelings as Amy. Participants in the FOMO-*work* condition were specifically asked to reflect on having similar emotions and/or feelings in their work experiences. Participants were provided with an open text box to describe their personal experience, emotions, and feelings.

Pilot Findings

The frequency distribution of FOMO-*work* and FOMO-*trait* are presented in Figures 2-2 and 2-3. Notably, 33% of participants indicated that they "Always" or "Frequently" experience FOMO-*work*. Only five participants, representing 11% of the sample, reported that they "Never" experience FOMO-*work*. This means 89% of participants have experienced FOMO-*work* to some extent. Regarding FOMO-*trait*, participants reported even greater frequency. All participants reported they resonate with Amy to some extent, with approximately 42% reporting "Always" or "Frequently" having similar experiences as Amy.

Figure 2-2.   Pilot Study: Frequency Distribution of FOMO-*work*
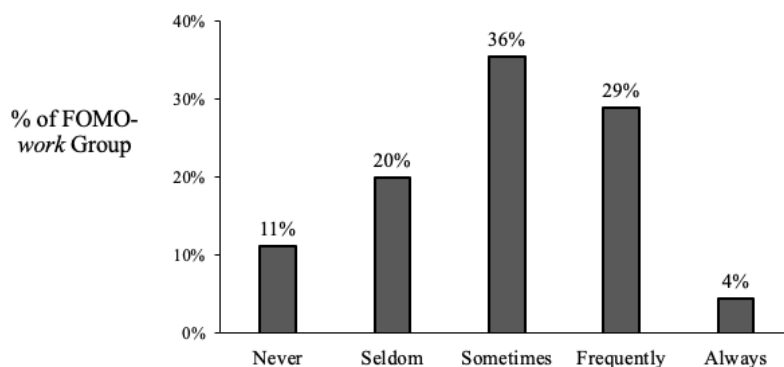
Note. N=45. Participants responded to the question "In your current job, how often do you have similar thoughts and/or feelings as Amy?"

Figure 2-3.   Pilot Study: Frequency Distribution of FOMO-*trait*
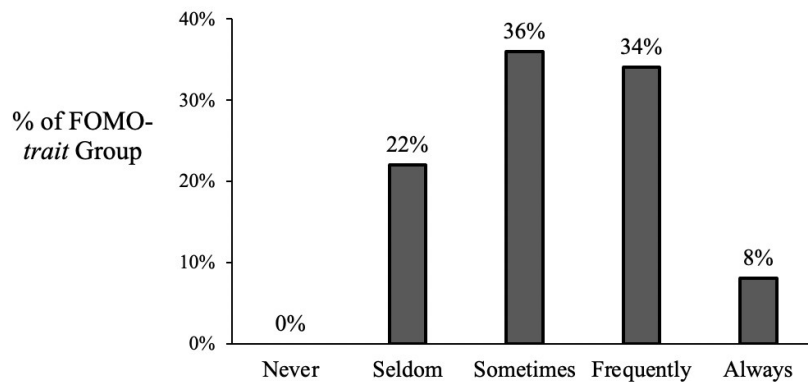
Note. N=50. Participants responded to the question "How often do you have similar thoughts and/or feelings as Amy?"

Pilot Discussion

The pilot study provided insight on the frequency and prevalence of FOMO-*work* and FOMO-*trait*. The majority of participants resonated with "Amy's" experience described in the vignettes and were able to immediately recall a personal experience to write about. The experiences, emotions, and thoughts described by participants provide a deeper understanding of employees' experiences using social media.

Interestingly, in reviewing the open text responses from participants, we found that some participants in the FOMO-*trait* condition wrote about FOMO-*work* despite not being prompted to think about their work experiences. However, this was not a surprise since FOMO-*trait* can cut across domains of life (Przybylski et al., 2013). Yet, the fact that participants can clearly recall their FOMO-*work* experiences and the associated emotions without being prompted to think about their work highlights the importance of understanding the impact of FOMO-*work* and to parse its effects from FOMO-*trait* on work outcomes.

Study 1: Field Study of Employees' Social Media Intensity and Work Outcomes

Following the pilot study, we conducted a field study to test Hypotheses 1 to 4. With initial validation from the pilot study that employees indeed experience FOMO-*work,* Study 1 aims to test the effects of FOMO-*work* on employee work attitudes and well-being, above and beyond FOMO-*trait*.

Study 1 Sample and Procedure

We conducted an online survey with employees at an environmental consulting firm in Canada. We distributed the survey link to 170 employees via their corporate e-mail addresses provided by the human resources manager. The survey link was available for three weeks and weekly reminders were sent to employees to complete the survey. Participants were assured that their responses were anonymous, and all participants were entered into a prize draw for a $50 giftcard.

We received 130 completed responses, representing a response rate of 76%. The company owners and human resources personnel were excluded from the study to avoid any biases. The average age of the sample was 34 years old ($SD = 10$) and average tenure was four years ($SD = 4$ years). The sample contained 35% females and 13% management employees. The average frequency of social media usage of the sample was 48 minutes per day ($SD = 53$ minutes).

Study 1 Measures

Unless otherwise stated, all items used a five-point Likert scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree", 5 = "Strongly Agree"). All items in each measure are listed in Appendix B. Due to the field context of the study, we had to ensure a short and concise survey. Therefore, some measures were adapted and shortened to fit the survey length requirements of the organization.

Social Media Intensity. A seven-item scale from Steinfield et al. (2008) on Facebook Intensity was adapted to measure social media intensity ($\alpha = .93$). All references to "Facebook" in the original items were changed to "social media" (e.g.,

"Social media has become part of my daily routine" and "I am proud to tell people I'm on social media"). Prior to aggregating the items, we log-transformed the items related to the total number of friends on social media and the average number of minutes spent on social media daily, as suggested by Steinfield et al. (2008).

FOMO-*trait*. A 10-item scale developed by Przybylski et al. (2013) was used to measure FOMO-*trait* (α = .89). A sample item is "I fear others have more rewarding experiences than me."

FOMO-*work*. We adapted the established FOMO-*trait* scale by Przybylski et al. (2013) to the work context (α = .76) by modifying the items to specify the concern for *work* experiences rather than experiences in general. For example, the original item of "I fear others have more rewarding experiences than me" was modified to "I fear others are having more rewarding *work* experiences than me." Since the measure for FOMO-*work* was adapted from FOMO-*trait*, we separated these two measures in the survey with items from other measures.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale (α = .80) developed by Cammann et al. (1983). An example item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job."

Job Engagement. Four items from Saks (2006) were used to measure job engagement (α = .82). An example item is "I am highly engaged in this job." We removed one item from the original scale ("My mind often wanders and I think of other things when doing my job") because it is not clear whether this item captures employees' work or non-work-related thoughts.

Emotional Burnout. To measure emotional burnout, we referred to Maslach and Jackson's (1981) emotional exhaustion scale. Due to limitations in the length of the survey in the field setting, we selected the five most relevant items to our context from the original nine-item scale (α = .88). An example item is "I feel emotionally drained from my work."

Control Variables. We included several control variables that could theoretically affect the relationships under examination: perceived job alternatives, task significance, gender, and age. *Perceived job alternatives* represents an individual's awareness of actual alternative job opportunities. In comparison, FOMO-*work* captures the intense anxiety and concern about better alternatives which may not reflect the availability of actual alternatives. Since both FOMO-*work* and perceived job alternatives are about alternative work opportunities, we controlled for perceived job alternatives to distinguish their unique effects. Perceived job alternatives was measured with three-items ($\alpha = .83$) from Steel and Griffeth (1989). To better align with our study, we adapted the measure to specify *external* job alternatives. For example, the original item: "I know of several job alternatives that I could apply for" was modified to: "I know of several external job alternatives that I could apply for". Next, *task significance* was controlled for as individuals with high task significance generally find more meaning and satisfaction in their work (Humphrey et al., 2007) and may be less concerned about better experiences. Task significance was measured with three items ($\alpha = .85$) from Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). We moved one repetitive item from the original scale due to survey length constraints. Finally, gender and age effects were controlled for as prior studies have found that men and younger individuals have higher FOMO-*trait* (Przybylski et al., 2013). Consistent with recommendations regarding control variables (Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016), we tested all models with and without controls and the findings were consistent.

Study 1 Results

Table 2-1 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations. As expected, SMI is positively and significantly related to FOMO-*work* ($r = .45$; $p < .01$) and FOMO-*trait* ($r = .42$; $p < .01$). While SMI is not correlated with the work outcomes, FOMO-*work* is negatively related to job satisfaction ($r = -.16$; $p > .05$) and employee engagement ($r = -.14$; $p > .05$) and both relationships are approaching significance. FOMO-*work* is also positively and significantly related to emotional burnout ($r = .30$; $p < .01$). Also as expected, FOMO-*work* is positively correlated with FOMO-*trait* ($r = .68$; $p < .01$). Interestingly, FOMO-*work* is not significantly related to perceived job alternatives ($r =$

.05; $p > .05$). The weak correlation provides evidence that FOMO-*work,* the concern for better work experiences, is distinct from perceptions of actual availability of work alternatives. Overall, the correlations provide initial support for the hypothesized relationships between FOMO-*work* and work outcomes as well as, FOMO-*work* as a more proximal link to work outcomes compared to FOMO-*trait*.

Table 2-1. **Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations**

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Social media intensity	2.34	1.05									
2. FOMO-*work*	2.34	0.65	.45**								
3. Job satisfaction	4.27	0.76	.06	-.16							
4. Job engagement	3.91	0.75	.04	-.14	.56**						
5. Emotional burnout	3.18	0.98	.01	.30**	-.44**	-.22*					
6. FOMO-*trait*	2.35	0.83	.42**	.68**	-.02	.04	.15				
7. Perceived job alternatives	3.54	1.04	.03	.05	-.20*	-.03	.20*	-.05			
8. Task significance	3.66	0.90	.06	.08	.32**	.40**	-.09	.15	.02		
9. Gender	0.35	0.48	.30**	.16	.16	.19*	.08	.19*	.02	-.07	
10. Age	33.53	9.66	-.23**	-.27**	.19*	.17	-.13	-.27**	-.04	.08	-.12

Notes: N = 130. Gender (1=Female). * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

To test Hypothesis 1, that SMI is positively related to FOMO-*work*, after accounting for FOMO-*trait*, we applied hierarchical regression analyses. In Step 1, we entered FOMO-*trait*, perceived job alternatives, task significance, gender, and age as control variables, and in Step 2, we entered SMI. As seen in Table 2-2, there is a positive and significant relationship between SMI and FOMO-*work* ($b = .12$, p < .01, $\Delta R^2 = .03$). Hence, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Table 2-2. **Study 1: Hierarchical Regression Results**

Variable	Step 1			Step 2	
	b	*SE*		*b*	*SE*
FOMO-*trait*	.52**	.05		.47**	.06
Perceived job alternatives	.05	.04		.04	.04
Task significance	-.01	.05		-.02	.05
Gender	.03	.09		-.03	.09
Age	-.01	.01		-.01	.01
Social media intensity				.12**	.05
R^2	.48			.51	
F(df)	22.7	(5, 124)		21.1	(6, 123)

Note. N = 130. *b* = unstandardized regression coefficient. Gender (1=Female). * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Hypotheses 2 to 4 predicted that FOMO-*work* would facilitate the negative relationships between SMI and job satisfaction and employee engagement, and positive relationship between SMI and emotional burnout, while controlling for the effects of FOMO-*trait*. To test this set of hypotheses, we used the PROCESS macro in SPSS to test indirect effects (Version 3.5, Model 4; Hayes, 2022). We used 5,000 bootstrap estimates and a random seed to construct a 95% confidence interval. Table 2-3 presents the results for the tests of indirect effects through FOMO-*work*. As predicted, SMI is positively and significantly related to FOMO-*work* ($b = .12$, $p < .01$), which in turn, is negatively and significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = -.29$, $p < .05$). The bootstrapped confidence interval shows the indirect effect is statistically different from zero (effect: -.035; CI: [-.088, -.001]). Similarly, FOMO-*work* is negatively and significantly related to employee engagement ($b = -.34$, $p < .01$) and the indirect effect is also statistically different from zero (effect: -.041; CI: [-.091, -.005]). Lastly, FOMO-*work* is positively and significantly related to emotional burnout ($b = .55$, $p < .01$) and the confidence interval does not include zero (effect: .067; CI: [.008, .173]). In summary, we find support for Hypotheses 2 to 4.

Table 2-3.   Study 1: Indirect Effects of Social Media Intensity on Work Outcomes through FOMO-work

Variables	Mediator: FOMO-*work*		DV: Job satisfaction		DV: Job engagement		DV: Emotional burnout	
	b	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*
Intercept	1.01**	.31	3.64**	.45	2.65**	.45	2.22**	.63
Social media intensity	.12**	.05	.08	.07	.03	.07	-.16	.09
Mediator								
FOMO-*work*			-.29*	.13	-.34**	.13	.55**	.18
Controls								
FOMO-*trait*	0.47**	.06	.04	.10	.14	.10	-.03	.14
Perceived job alternatives	.04	.04	-.15*	.06	-.02	.06	.18*	.08
Task significance	-.02	.05	.28**	.07	.33**	.07	-.11	.09
Age	-.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	-.01	.01
Gender	-.03	.09	.32*	.13	.38**	.13	.14	.18

Indirect effects through FOMO-*work* on:	Effect	95% CI
Job satisfaction	**-.035**	**[-.088, -.001]**
Job engagement	**-.041**	**[-.091, -.005]**
Emotional burnout	**.067**	**[.008, .173]**

Note. N = 130. *b* = unstandardized regression coefficient. Gender (1=Female). Bootstrapped sample size = 5,000. Significant indirect effects are bolded. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Supplementary Analysis. While all our hypotheses were supported, we were interested in further exploring the distinction between FOMO-*work* and FOMO-*trait*. We conducted a supplementary analysis to examine the indirect effects of SMI on work outcomes through FOMO-*trait* while controlling for FOMO-*work.* The indirect effects were non-significant on job satisfaction (effect: .01; CI: [-.01, .05]), job engagement (effect: .02; CI: [-.01, .07]), and emotional burnout (effect: -.01; CI: [-.05, .03]). Thus, the result of this supplementary analysis indicates that FOMO-*work* is a unique mechanism that can explain the adverse effects of social media on work outcomes beyond FOMO-*trait*.

Study 1 Discussion

In this study, we tested and found support for our hypotheses that employees' SMI has detrimental effects on their work attitude and well-being (i.e., job satisfaction, employee engagement, and emotional burnout) through FOMO-*work.* These findings present a novel and contrasting perspective to the majority of current research on the positive direct effects of social media (mainly ESMs) on job satisfaction. Furthermore, we found support for our hypotheses even after controlling for the effects of FOMO-*trait* and perceived job alternatives. This highlights the unique effects that FOMO-*work* has on work outcomes and the importance of distinguishing the anxiety that employees may carry about work alternatives which may or may not reflect actual available alternatives.

Nonetheless, there are limitations to the design of this study which we sought to address in the subsequent studies. Although the organizational setting allowed us to collect field data, we were limited to a cross-sectional survey and in drawing causal inferences. However, we provided theoretical support for our hypothesized relationships and specifically, the psychological mechanism through which SMI affects employees work experiences. In the subsequent studies, we strengthen our findings by using an experimental and time-lagged design that allow for stronger causal inferences.

Study 2 & 3: FOMO-*work* and Attraction to External Job Opportunities

In Study 2 and 3, we examine an additional work consequence of FOMO-*work* that involves attraction to external job opportunities. Given that Study 1 demonstrated the critical role of FOMO-*work* in facilitating the deleterious effects of SMI on employee work attitudes and well-being, we focused on the link between FOMO-*work* and work outcomes. To do so, we manipulated FOMO-*work* and tested the effects on attraction to external opportunities across both studies.

According to RDT, employees who perceive they could be in a better job and want, expect, or feel entitled to a better position will be less satisfied and seek ways to remedy the situation (Kraimer et al., 2009). They may foster withdrawal intentions and seek work alternatives including external job opportunities (Kraimer et al., 2009; Zoogah, 2010). For employees experiencing FOMO-*work*, not only do they perceive there are better alternatives, but are also intensely concerned and ruminating about these possibilities. The external job market can appear especially attractive due to polished work experiences and organizational settings posted on social media. As employees are constantly exposed to positively framed experiences, employees can start to generalize the perception that external opportunities are more attractive and exciting (Przybylski et al., 2013). Thus, aligned with prior research that suggests employees who frequently ruminate about alternative opportunities and perceive similar or better work experiences can be obtained will have stronger withdrawal intentions (Kraimer et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2008; Tröster et al., 2019; Zoogah, 2010), we expect employees experiencing FOMO-*work* to have greater attraction to external job opportunities compared to employees who are not experiencing FOMO-*work* in the moment.

> *Hypothesis 5: FOMO-work enhances the attraction to external job opportunities, after accounting for FOMO-trait.*

Study 2 Sample and Procedure

In Study 2, we conducted a time-separated study with an online sample of working adults using Prolific. At time 1 (T1), we recruited 200 participants and measured individual differences (e.g., FOMO-*trait*), demographics (e.g., age, gender) and work

experiences (e.g., total years of work experience). We removed one participant who failed an attention check question and one who was unemployed. To reduce common method biases such as demand effects and participant fatigue, we collected time 2 (T2) data after a 48-hour lag (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Of 198 participants, 144 returned in T2 providing a response rate of 73%. All participants passed the attention check question at T2. The average age of the participants is 34 and years of work experience is 13. The sample includes 49% female, 65% Caucasian, and 71% who have attained a bachelor's degree or higher. The average time spent on social media is 100 minutes daily (SD = 95 minutes), ranging from zero to 500 minutes daily.

We conducted a between-subject design where participants were randomly assigned to either a FOMO-*work* or control condition at T2. Participants in the FOMO-*work* condition were presented with a vignette, similar to the pilot study, about a fictional person, Amy, and her experience of FOMO-*work*. Slight modifications were made to the pilot study vignette for more clarity and conciseness:

> "Amy is generally content with her work experiences. However, Amy is concerned that there are potentially better work experiences that she may be missing out on. She frequently sees social media posts by her friends and colleagues about their work experiences. While on social media, she occasionally sees different job opportunities near her. Amy frequently imagines the potential of better work experiences for herself, although she is not absolutely sure what that would look like. When she has these thoughts, she cannot concentrate well on her work and feels unhappy in the moment."

After reading the vignette, participants were asked about the frequency of which they have similar thoughts and experiences as Amy (1 = "Never", 5 = "Always"). We removed seven participants from the study who selected "Never" to having similar experiences as Amy as the following priming manipulation would not be applicable to them. Thus, the final sample is 137 with 67 in the FOMO-*work* condition and 70 in the control condition.

We used a writing reflection exercise to manipulate FOMO-*work*, which is a commonly used approach to manipulate an employee experience or emotional state (e.g.,

Burgess et al., 2022; Dogan, 2019; Frias et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2011). Participants in the FOMO-*work* condition were instructed as follows:

> "In thinking about your own work experiences… Please write at least 5 sentences to describe when you have had similar thoughts/feelings as Amy. What are some potentially better work experiences that you may be missing out on? You may describe how you feel, your emotions, and your thoughts. Please be as vivid as possible."

Participants in the control condition did not read a vignette and were asked to reflect on and describe their day so far:

> "We are interested in learning about your daily routine. Take some time to think about your day and your typical routine. Please write at least 5 sentences to describe your day so far. You may describe your emotions and experience today. Please be as vivid as possible."

We instructed participants to spend a minimum of 75-seconds in the writing exercise. Participants voluntarily spent more time in the exercise, averaging around 3 minutes. After the writing exercise, we measured attraction to external job opportunities. To capture attraction to external job opportunities, we presented participants with the following scenario. The scenario was intentionally designed with limited information about the work opportunity, organization, and recruiter, and no indication as to whether the opportunity is a good one. Thus, this requires participants to imagine the opportunity and evaluate the potential.

> "You received a new message on LinkedIn. Imagine that you open the message and find that it's from a recruiter from another organization. The recruiter is messaging you about a potential job opportunity and tells you the job will be a good fit for you and matches your qualifications listed in your LinkedIn profile. This could be an opportunity for a new work experience for you."

Study 2 Measures

Otherwise noted, all measures used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "Strongly disagree" to 5 = "Strongly agree."

Attraction to External Job Opportunities. Employees' attraction to external job opportunities was measured using a three-item scale for job pursuit intentions adapted

from Schwoerer and Rosen (1989; α = .89). The items are "I would accept a job offer," "I would request additional information about the organization," and "I would sign up for an interview." We modified the first item to "I would respond positively to the recruiter" to better align with our scenario.

Control Variables. The between-subject and random assignment design limits the need for control variables. However, we included additional measures: FOMO-*trait* (α =.86), age, and gender, to explore their potential influences on the relationship between FOMO-*work* and work outcomes.

Study 2 Preliminary Data Analyses

To test whether participants in the FOMO-*work* condition were indeed primed into a state of FOMO-*work*, we asked two items from the FOMO-*work* measure as manipulation checks: "I fear others have more rewarding work experiences than me" and "I am bothered that I might be missing a better work opportunity." The results of independent sample *t*-tests revealed our writing exercise had the intended effect on eliciting FOMO-*work*. Participants in the FOMO-*work* condition reported significantly higher agreement to both items, respectively, compared to participants in the control condition ($t(135) = 2.31$, $p < .05$, $M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 3.51$, $M_{Control} = 3.04$; $t(135) = 3.23$; $p < .01$, $M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 3.73$, $M_{Control} = 3.09$).

Additionally, when asked the frequency of experiencing similar thoughts as "Amy" in the vignette, 28% of participants in the FOMO-*work* condition reported "Seldom", 35% reported "Sometimes", 20% reported "Frequently, and 7% reported "Always".

Study 2 Results

In the FOMO-*work* condition, participants described a range of thoughts and concerns about potentially better work alternatives. For example, participant #33 and 43 both describe the social media content they are exposed to and their thoughts when viewing other's work experiences.

"Browsing social media, especially LinkedIn, I regularly see my posts from my peers, former colleagues, or even former mentees. Whenever I see a post of one of them about starting a new job, I evaluate the job itself. Many times, especially when these jobs are at a higher level than my own, I start thinking about why I am not at that level." (Study 2, Participant #33, Female, 38 years old)

"When I see my friends posting about the work trips and in office benefits that they get, it makes me feel bad about my situation and missing out of these types of benefits… I am generally content with my work but am seeing better opportunities elsewhere. There is always the question of what if when considering moving onward to other opportunities." (Study 2, Participant #43, Male, 26 years old)

Meanwhile, participants in the control condition described their daily routine. For example, participant #8 shared the activities in her day so far.

"Today I woke up and got ready for work (working from home so my commute is walking from the bedroom to the desk about 15 steps away). I washed my face, put on sunscreen, some light makeup, brushed my teeth. Then I made tea and started the dishwasher. I then sat down to work. I took a break to run an errand at lunch and picked up some candy and food I'm going to make for dinner. I feel tired because I stayed up too late last night. I'm considering taking a nap later." (Study 2, Participant #8, Female, 33 years old)

To test Hypothesis 5, that employees experiencing FOMO-*work* will be more attracted to external job opportunities, we conducted an independent sample *t*-test. The results revealed higher job pursuit intentions in the FOMO-*work* condition; however, the differences between the conditions were non-significant. Thus, we did not find support for Hypothesis 5 in this sample ($t(135) = 1.14$; $p > .05$, $M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 3.89$, $M_{Control} = 3.70$). Since the main effects were non-significant, we did not proceed to explore the addition of control variables in the model. We discuss the implications of these results and further exploratory analyses conducted.

Exploratory Analyses. We conducted exploratory analyses to gain more insight to employees' experiences of FOMO-*work.* First, we explored participants responses in the writing exercise to gauge whether there were noticeable differences in the FOMO-*work* experiences. We found some participants in the FOMO-*work* condition wrote about

being content in their jobs or inability to relate to "Amy" in the vignette, rather than thoughts and emotions about better work alternatives. For example, participants wrote:

> "I can't answer that because I am very happy with my work experiences at the present time. I don't compare myself to others on social media because people don't always tell the truth." (Study 2, Participant #49, Female, 35 years old)

> "I have no idea. Most of the time that I've changed positions were because contracts coming to an end or a better job offer. A lot of times it has been because I wanted to stay close to my daughter as she moved around." (Study 2, Participant #72, Male, 62 years old)

Furthermore, a commonality between these participants was their response when asked about the frequency of having similar thoughts as "Amy" in the vignette. These participants reported a low frequency (2 = "Seldom"). Thus, these examples provide initial evidence that a detectable group of participants in the FOMO-*work* condition were not effectively primed by the writing exercise.

For empirical exploration, we compared participants in the FOMO-*work* condition by their frequency level. We found that participants who reported "Seldom" are significantly different from the rest of the participants who received the FOMO-*work* prime such that post-manipulation, they reported weaker responses to the manipulation check questions. These differences help to understand why their writing exercises contained predominantly positive comments about their current work situation. Thus, following these revelations, we conducted Study 3 to refine the sample for a more accurate test of the effects of FOMO-*work*.

Study 3 Sample and Procedure

In Study 3, we replicated the methodology from Study 2 with two modifications. First, in addition to measuring control variables at T1, we also presented the vignette of Amy's FOMO-*work* experiences to all participants and asked about their frequency of similar experiences as Amy. To reduce common method biases and participants' knowledge of the study objectives, we included filler measures that were not related to the study (e.g., cross cultural intelligence, etc.) to separate the core measures in the survey (e.g., FOMO-trait, SMI, and the vignette). The purpose of presenting the vignette

at T1 is to be able to identify and remove participants who indicate they "Never" or "Seldom" experience FOMO-*work*. Based on Study 2 results, we reason that this group of participants would have limited experiences of FOMO-*work* to draw on for the writing exercise and thus, will not be primed. By removing these participants, we capture the population of interest which are individuals who have experienced FOMO-*work* and can write about their experience of being primed into a current state of FOMO-*work*. Second, we controlled for the effects of job satisfaction measured at T1.

At T1, we collected data from 300 participants on Prolific. After 48 hours, we invited participants to return to complete the T2 survey of which they were randomized into the FOMO-*work* and control conditions. We received 240 responses, providing an 80% response rate. All participants passed the attention check questions in T1 and T2. There were 29 (12% of sample) participants who indicated "Never" and 82 (34%) who indicated "Seldom" to having similar experiences as "Amy" (at T1) and were thus, removed from the study. Of the remaining participants, 85 (35%) indicated "Sometimes", 38 (16%) indicated "Frequently", and 6 (3%) indicated "Always". This resulted in a final sample of 129, of which 62 were in the FOMO-*work* condition and 67 in the control condition. The sample consists of 44% female, 61% Caucasian, and 67% who have attained a bachelor's degree or higher. The average age is 35 and years of work experience is 14. There are no significant differences in the demographics of the initial and final sample. On average, participants spend 103 minutes daily on social media.

Study 3 Measures

The same measures as Study 2 were used for job satisfaction (α = .94), job pursuit intentions (α = .79), and FOMO-*trait* (α = .86).

Study 3 Preliminary Analyses

To test the effectiveness of the manipulation, we compared the FOMO-*work* and control conditions on the same two items from the FOMO-*work* measure as Study 2. The FOMO-*work* condition has significantly stronger agreement to: "I fear others have more rewarding work experiences than me" ($t(127) = 2.60$; $p < .05$, $M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 3.73$, $M_{Control} = 3.22$) and "I am bothered that I might be missing a better work opportunity" ($t(127) =$

3.75; $p < .01$, $M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 3.97$, $M_{Control} = 3.25$) compared to the control condition. This confirms the effectiveness of the manipulation.

Study 3 Results

Participants in the FOMO-*work* condition shared the following experiences of FOMO-*work*:

> "I see friends in different positions getting all expenses paid trips around the world by the company they are working for which immediately makes me wonder if I made a wrong career choice." (Study 3, Participant #65, Male, 28 years old)

> "When I see posts from people my age on social media about their work and I imagine that they're being paid more than I am and having a better quality of life overall because of it. I feel jealous and a little bit resentful in these moments." (Study 3, Participant #18, Female, 29 years old)

To test Hypothesis 5, we conducted hierarchical regression analyses. We first regressed the control variables of FOMO-*trait*, job satisfaction, age, and gender on job pursuit intentions. Then we regressed the dummy coded variable for the condition (1 = FOMO-*work*). As seen in Table 2-4, the FOMO-*work* condition has a positive and significant effect on job pursuit intentions ($b = .29$, $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$). This means employees who are currently experiencing FOMO-*work* are more likely to pursue external job opportunities. Thus, Hypothesis 5 is supported. The effects of FOMO-*work* by condition are illustrated in Figure 2-4. We also conducted an independent sample t-test to examine the main effects of FOMO-*work* on job pursuit intentions without the control variables. The results indicate higher job pursuit intentions in the FOMO-*work* condition ($M_{FOMO\text{-}work} = 4.13$) compared to the control condition ($M_{Control} = 3.88$); however, the difference is marginally significant ($t(127) = 1.92$; $p = .057$). These results are discussed in the following section.

Table 2-4.   **Study 3: Hierarchical Regression Results**

Variable	Job Pursuit Intentions				
	Step 1			Step 2	
	b	SE		b	SE
Constant	3.80**	.41		3.64**	.41
FOMO-*trait*	.09	.09		.12	.09
Job satisfaction	-.08	.06		-.09	.06
Gender	.03	.14		-.03	.14
Age	.01	.01		.01	.01
Condition				.29*	.14
R^2	.03			.06	
ΔR^2				.03	
$F(df)$	.82	(4, 124)		1.60	(5, 123)

Note. $N = 129$. b = unstandardized regression coefficient. Condition (1 = FOMO-*work*, 0 = Control). Gender (1 = Female, 0 = Male). * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Figure 2-4.   **Study 3: Comparison of Estimated Marginal Means of Job Pursuit Intentions between FOMO-work and Control Conditions**
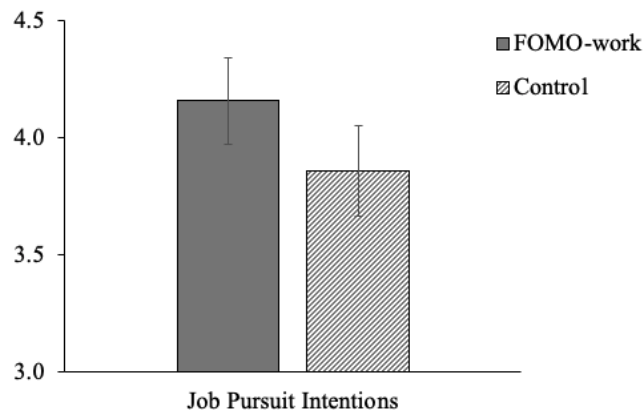
Note. $N = 129$. FOMO-*work* $n = 62$, Control $n = 67$. Standard error bars represent 95% confidence interval. Control variables include FOMO-*trait*, job satisfaction, gender, and age.

Study 3 Discussion

Based on the findings in Study 2, we sought to improve the salience and effectiveness of the FOMO-*work* manipulation (i.e., writing prime) in Study 3 by refining the sample and controlling for prior job satisfaction. We suspected that job satisfaction is an important factor to consider in the ability to prime and elicit a strong FOMO-*work*

reaction from employees in the moment. The results of Study 3 validated our suspicion as we found significant effects of FOMO-*work* on job pursuit intentions. However, without control variables, the effects of FOMO-*work* on job pursuit intentions are only marginally significant. There are two particular implications to these findings. First, the findings highlight the importance of parsing the effects of FOMO-*work,* FOMO-*trait*, and job satisfaction. Once FOMO-*trait* and job satisfaction are accounted for, the unique effects of FOMO-*work* are captured. Second, Study 3 included a relatively conservative sample size that may have limited the ability to identify differences between the conditions. Even with the current sample size, there is a notable difference between the conditions on job pursuit intentions which may become more significant with a larger sample. Overall, Study 3 provides more insight on employees' attraction to external opportunities by capturing more precisely the effects of FOMO-*work.*

General Discussion

In this paper, we examined FOMO-*work* as a psychological mechanism to explain how employees' SMI can adversely affect their work outcomes. Across four studies, valuable insights were generated from narratives provided by employees about their experiences on social media and in particular, the negative evaluations they may form about their work when comparing to other's work situations portrayed on social media. We conceptualized FOMO-*work* as a state that employees can experience specific to their work experiences. Further, the unique effects of FOMO-*work* were parsed from FOMO-*trait.* By doing so, we illustrated the importance of FOMO-*work* as a more proximal link to employee attitudes and well-being compared to FOMO-*trait,* as well as perceived job alternatives. Finally, we developed a writing exercise to prime FOMO-*work* and examine the effects on employees' attraction to an external job opportunity on social media.

Theoretical Implications

Our research has several theoretical implications. First, we theorize how employees' social media usage, more broadly beyond ESMs, can influence their work outcomes. Within management research, social media is generally simplified as a

corporate tool which limits the understanding of how social media can be a large part of employees' lives and identities and influence their work experiences. Researchers have recognized the complexity of studying social media in the workplace as employees' relationships with social media originated outside of the workplace and as a result, they bring unique social media habits and consequences to work (Leonardi & Vaast, 2017; Shapiro & Margolin, 2014). Thus, our research responds to calls for new theory and concepts to better understand employees' social media usage more broadly (Colbert et al., 2016; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Specifically, our work illuminates the psychological experience that employees may have social media. We raise a critical consideration to management research of how the psychological consequences and deep connections that employees develop with social media can influence their experience of work.

Second, we extend research on FOMO to the work context and as a state that employees can experience as a result of their social media activities. While extant research predominantly examines FOMO as a trait, our work introduces FOMO-*work* to capture the concerns and rumination about work-specific experiences. Despite being a transient state, our research illustrates that FOMO-*work* has the ability to alter an employee's attitude about his or her work and enhance withdrawal intentions. Thus, by theorizing a state and work-specific form of FOMO, we develop a greater understanding of how and why SMI can have detrimental effects on work outcomes.

Finally, we illustrate how RDT can be applied to the social media environment. While social media provides unprecedented ability to share and view one another's work experiences, the information does not represent reality as experiences are framed substantially more positively (Chou & Edge, 2012; Shapiro and Margolin, 2014). This type of environment is ideal to illustrate RDT as it contains an abundance of embellished information making social media highly conducive for employees to conduct subjective and negative comparisons. Thus, our work illustrates how RDT can extend to employees' online experiences and behaviors.

Practical Implications

Managers are often concerned about implementing blanket policies to limit social media at work (Bizzi, 2020). However, much of the workforce today has grown up within the digital environment such that social media is interwoven into employees' lifestyles and even influenced their neurological developments (Colbert et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2021; Lai et al., 2016; Przybylski et al., 2013). Thus, blanket policies may not be able to account for the psychological consequences of social media such as FOMO-*work,* which does not conform to the temporal or physical boundaries separating work and personal lives (Colbert et al., 2016; Leonardi & Vaast; 2017). Moreover, personal social media usage and online tendencies can have spillover effects on how individuals use social media platforms at work (Leonardi & Vaast; 2017). Research shows that organization policies that limit employees' personal social media usage at work can inadvertently reduce their usage of ESMs as well (Bizzi, 2020). Thus, rather than implementing blanket policies, managers need to consider when incorporating social media can be beneficial to organizations and leverage the fact that social media will continue to have a large role in employees' lives.

Furthermore, employees who have stronger SMIs view their social media activities as part of their identity and lifestyle. They have social media integrated in their lives including in the work domain. Thus, they may have unique needs to incorporate their work experiences on social media. This is aligned with research that suggests digitally savvy employees have different forms of social needs which may include incorporating technology throughout their work experiences (Kim et al., 2021). For example, managers can utilize social media to strengthen employee bonds by developing a community on social media with workplace specific hash-tags and to share team experiences. Managers can also recognize employees on social media and provide opportunities for employees to share more accurate representations of work. Ultimately, managers need to encourage and model more mindful and authentic social media usage.

Limitations and Future Research

There are limitations of this research that can provide for fruitful future research opportunities. First, there are opportunities to explore the boundaries conditions of the effects of social media and FOMO-*work* on work outcomes. An interesting finding from the pilot study was that many individuals in the FOMO-*trait* group were triggered to think about their work experiences without being prompted to do so. Thus, we expect individual differences such as, work centrality or career salience might be important boundaries conditions to help understand why individuals are more or less likely to experience FOMO-*work*. Although we were limited by the organization setting of Study 1 to explore boundary conditions, in Studies 2 and 3, we developed and tested a manipulation to prime FOMO-work. Therefore, future research can utilize this method to examine individual differences that may exacerbate or inhibit the adverse effects of social media.

Second, although we provided theoretical support for the psychological mechanisms connecting social media to employee work attitudes and well-being, we initially tested these relationships using cross-sectional field data and in one organizational setting. Our subsequent experimental studies with more diverse samples of participants help to complement the initial findings. However, it would be valuable for future studies to also examine the relationships and replicate the findings in time-lagged studies that can draw stronger causal inferences.

Lastly, there are opportunities to examine alternative mechanisms linking social media to work outcomes. Our research objective was to examine the adverse psychological consequences of social media from a relative deprivation perspective. However, alternative mechanisms may derive positive outcomes from social media (Oh et al., 2014). For example, prior research suggests that social media can enhance one's sense of social support and community (Oh et al., 2014; Ellison et al., 2007). Therefore, future research can consider examining more relational mechanisms connecting social media to work outcomes.

Conclusion

Our research advances knowledge on employees' psychological experiences on social media and the effects on their work experiences. We theorize a key mechanism to the social media context that links employees' social media intensity to work outcomes, namely, FOMO-*work*. Although it is common knowledge that social media houses carefully crafted and polished work experiences and information, employees still refer to social media as a prime source of information to form expectations for and evaluate their work experiences. Constant exposure to other's positive work experiences can generate the perception and concern that there are many better alternatives which one is currently missing (i.e., FOMO-*work*). Thus, employees who are intense social media users are constantly reminded of the potential of alternatives and are more likely to experience FOMO-*work.* Their concern for alternatives leaves them undermining their own work situation and more attracted to external opportunities. Thus, to understand the influence of social media usage in the workplace, which has more complex layers than simply a communication tool, future research needs to consider employees' psychological experiences of being on social media.

Paper 3.

A Review and Synthesis of Network Ties Research in Organizations and on Social Media

Social media can form a large part of employees' work experiences including developing and maintaining social relations (Kane et al., 2014). Prior research highlights the advantages of social media in developing large social networks that provide social capital and in turn, enhancing work and career outcomes (Ali-Hassan et al., 2015; Steinfield et al., 2008). However, it is unclear whether social media networks and the embedded resources differ from traditional organizational networks (Kane et al., 2014). Moreover, the resources provided by social networks depend on the types of network ties developed, which are the interpersonal dyadic relations within an individual's (ego's) network and the building blocks of social networks (Burt, 2002; Granovetter, 1973; Lin, 1999). Therefore, to better understand social networks in the social media era and the embedded resources that could be beneficial to careers, this paper presents a systematic review of the research on network ties in the organizational and social media contexts.

The seminal work of Granovetter (1973) on the *strength of weak ties* has spawned over 50 years of rich knowledge on the social relations within networks. Within the organizational context, research has largely followed Granovetter's original conceptualization of "strong" and "weak" ties to examine the benefits and consequences of social network ties across different work contexts. Researchers have also subsequently conceptualized and examined numerous other network ties, beyond strong and weak ties, in an effort to map the diverse relations within an ego's social network. To name a few, scholars have conceptualized friendship, positive and negative, advice, bridging, transitive, and dormant ties. Despite the large body of research on network ties, there are many redundancies in the properties defining different types of ties and there is a lack of depth in understanding the distinctiveness of each tie. Thus, this raises concerns on how prior research has conceptualized and measured different network ties.

Additionally, the emergence of social media over the past two decades has increased the importance of understanding the multitude and diversity of ties within social networks (Kane et al., 2014; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Within the social media context, social relations and interactions follow many peculiarities that are unique from in-person relationships, which prompts researchers to consider whether traditional properties of ties should be revised (Colbert et al., 2016; Kane et al., 2014; McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Social media networks are unique in many aspects including, first, the sheer size of networks that can be generated on social media. Second, these digital platforms can facilitate the development of unique types of network ties. For example, individuals can form one-way (i.e., unilateral) ties on social media through "following" others, interacting through "likes" and commenting on posts without having any reciprocation or acknowledgement from the other parties. This type of tie may or may not generate any material resources or reciprocal friendship but can still facilitate a sense of community and belonging. Third, social media allows users to disclose personal information and publicly display their network connections. This means individuals can learn about each other (e.g., employment history, similar interests, common connections, etc.) and decide on the value of connecting or potentially establish a psychological connection before formally meeting. Thus, network ties on social media are associated with distinct benefits, purposes, and consequences that differ from the traditional view of (in-person) ties in management research.

Despite the recognition that social media is a dominant tool for individuals to develop and maintain large and diverse networks, there is limited research that examines the difference between traditional network ties in organizations and those on social media (Kane et al., 2014). Management research has been slow to adopt and integrate a social media perspective because traditional theories and concepts do not account for the dynamics of interpersonal relations online (Colbert et al., 2016; Leonardi & Vaast, 2017). Thus, research on network ties within organizations and on social media represent two distinct bodies of research that have largely developed independent of one another. Within the organizational context, research on network ties is more mature such that a large number and diverse types of ties (many of which overlap) have been examined in regard to work outcomes. To our knowledge, no review has been conducted within the

management field on the numerous social network ties in organizations. Concurrently, there is also a nascent and active body of research on network ties from a social media perspective developing across a range of fields such as psychology, communications, information technology, and other business domains (e.g., marketing, information systems, and operations). Emerging research on network ties from a social media perspective could advance knowledge on organizational networks but is yet to be integrated. Thus, not only is there a need for a comprehensive synthesis and classification of network ties in management research, but also an opportunity for cross-fertilization of knowledge between a mature and an emerging stream of work.

The objective of this article is to review research on network ties in two bodies of literature (management and social media) to shed light on the multitude of ties conceptualized in both domains and the potential resources provided by such ties. To provide a roadmap of our review, we begin by outlining the methodology of our systematic approach to review both bodies of literature. We then provide a broad overview of the research developments on network ties in both contexts. Since there is a burgeoning number of ties conceptualized, an organizing framework is needed to categorize network ties and identify key characteristics and embedded resources that define and differentiate the value of ties. We took stock of over 80 different ties conceptualized in the organizational and social media context and identified two dimensions (i.e., tie strength properties and tie content) to generate a typology to organize the ties. Finally, we conclude with a discussion of future research opportunities stemming from our review of research on network ties in organizations and on social media.

By reviewing the different types of network ties established, we contribute to the management field in several ways (Elsbach & van Knippenberg, 2020; Short, 2009). First, we strengthen the understanding of social relations within networks by providing an overview of the current state of research on social network ties. Our review found that many studies refer to different ties interchangeably (e.g., bonding and strong ties; Phua et al., 2017; Vardaman et al., 2015) and confound the properties of strong and weak ties, which can result in mixed findings. For example, studies have found that *strong ties* can enhance work performance if strength is defined by frequency of interaction (e.g.,

Cannella & McFadyen, 2016). Yet, strong ties can also hinder creative work performance if strength is defined by emotional intensity (e.g., Perry-Smith, 2006). Therefore, our review can enhance future research on social networks by revealing areas of redundancies and confounding effects of networks, as well as developing convergence in research on strong and weak ties. Second, we develop a typology to organize the burgeoning number of ties into eight unique types or categories based on defining tie characteristics (i.e., tie strength properties) and embedded resources (i.e., tie content) within a tie. Our typology offers clarity on the tie characteristics and mechanisms through which network ties provide value to careers. In turn, this helps scholars to be more precise in their research on the characteristics of the network ties under examination and how networks may generate value. Lastly, we review research on network ties in both the organizational and social media contexts. Given that social networks today are likely on or extend to social media, this review helps to form a more comprehensive map of an ego's social network in the social media era. By reviewing both bodies of literature, we also provide a starting point for future research to examine and compare the value of traditional and social media networks. Overall, our work can enrich and advance management research in the social media era including but not limited to studies on social networks.

Scope and Method of Systematic Review

We outline the procedures of our systematic review of two bodies of research on network ties in (1) the management literature and (2) social media literature. Starting with the management field, our review included two phases. First, we searched the Web of Science database for peer-reviewed journal articles in English that included any variation of the terms *"social network"* and *"tie"* in the title or abstract. In line with extant management reviews, we casted a wide net with broad key terms (e.g., Payne, 2011; Porter & Woo, 2015). By pairing two key terms rather than the combined term of "social network ties", we were able to capture more articles for inclusion such as any types of ties. Further, "tie" is the widely recognized term within social network research to represent the relations within networks (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973; Kilduff & Brass, 2010). Although there are related terms such as link, connection, alliance, or relationship, these are generally used to describe the existence of a tie rather than represent a type of

network tie. Thus, in an effort to focus on the objective and scope of this review– to organize and synthesize the different types of network "ties" conceptualized, we did not include the adjacent terms.

The review timeframe included 50 years of publications (1973-2022, inclusive) to trace the body of literature after the seminal work of Granovetter (1973). We searched for publications within leading academic journals in the management, sociology, and psychology fields. For management journals, we referred to the Financial Times (FT50) list of journals and included those within management. We also included additional management and psychology journals not on the FT50 list but are considered in other reviews as highly impactful (Payne, 2011; Zhong & Robinson, 2021). Finally, we included three top journals in the sociology field. In total, we searched 33 journals, which returned 483 results (see Appendix C for the list of journals included).

In the second phase, all abstracts were reviewed for the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Articles that mentioned a specific type of network tie were included. Following recommendations from Aguinis and colleagues (2018), we erred on the side of inclusivity of articles and if there was any uncertainty about inclusion, we reviewed the full article for content about specific network ties. We also included articles that examined network ties at different levels of research (e.g., individual-, team-, and organizational-level) as long as a type of tie was implicated. Articles were excluded if no specific type of ties (e.g., strong, weak, bonding, bridging, etc.) were mentioned. For example, articles that examined the effect of having social networks in general, networking strategies (e.g., strategies, skills, and activities), brokering activities and positions but did not explicate a specific type of tie were removed (e.g., Seidel et al., 2000). Additional exclusions were made for articles about network-level dynamics (e.g., network density, network changes) and methodological approaches to studying social networks (e.g., modelling and measuring techniques). For reviews on the aforementioned topics, see An and colleagues (2022), Borgatti and Halgin (2011), Kwon and colleagues (2020), and Porter and Woo (2015). The final sample of articles from the management field is 276 which were then coded for type of tie(s) and outcome(s) examined.

Next, we followed a similar two-phase review procedure of the network ties research in the social media domain. In addition to the terms "*social network*" and "*tie*", we also included the term "*social media*" to ensure the network ties research was related to social media. Given that research on social media networks is a nascent field, we first explored the number of years to include in our search of the Web of Science database. We found 404 articles published between 2013-2022 (10 years, inclusive) but as we increased the search criteria to 20 years, the results only increased by 14 articles. Thus, we decided to include the most recent 20 years of research in the social media literature as limited results exists beyond these years. Next, narrowing the list of academic journals was more challenging in the social media domain as social media is a highly popular research topic across many disciplines (Wilson, 2012). Thus, we referred to the Australian Dean's Business Council ranking of journals and included 849[3] journals with an "A" or "A*" rating. This approach is also in line with recommendations from Aguinis and colleagues (2018) to increase the diversity and representation of non-U.S. journals. We also included four domain-specific journals: Social Media & Society, New Media & Society, Social Networks, and Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication. After filtering for articles within these journals, the search returned 150 articles of which two overlapped with the sample of articles generated from the management literature.

We then reviewed the abstracts for inclusion and exclusion criteria. Again, articles that mentioned a specific type of network tie were included. For example, we included studies that examined social networks on social media as a unique context, as well as studies that were not specific to the social media context but sampled participants on social media to study network ties. The final sample of articles from the social media domain is 71.

Overview of Social Network Ties Research

In this section, we provide an overview of how research on social network ties has evolved since the seminal work on strong and weak ties (Granovetter, 1973). The

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[3] Due to the breadth of journals, these are not listed in the manuscript. Full list of journals is available from the author.

overview begins with research on network ties in the organizational context followed by network ties in the social media context. To start, social networks are composed of actors (e.g., individuals, groups, organizations) and ties (e.g., connections, relations). Burt (2002) describes the actors within a network as the nodes and the ties are the lines connecting the nodes. Since ties are examined as dyadic relations, the focal actor is called the "ego" and the actors that the ego is tied to are called "alters".

Network Ties in the Organizational Context

Granovetter (1973) first paved the road for research on network ties by outlining core properties that represent strong and weak ties. He described four broad and interrelated properties of which strong and weak ties can vary: 1) frequency of interaction, 2) emotional intensity (or intimacy), 3) reciprocity of relations, and 4) network overlap (Granovetter, 1973). Moreover, Granovetter (1973) proposed that *strong ties* do not need to encompass all properties and one property could be sufficient to classify a tie as strong. Subsequent research has examined the benefits and consequences of strong and weak ties across different contexts such as work environments, types of work, stages of product and idea development, and cultural context (e.g., Barbulescu, 2015; Flipo et al., 2022; Hansen, 1999; Leung, 2003; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017).

Despite the large body of work on strong and weak ties, scholars have yet to provide a clear direction in whether and how to account for all four properties in defining and measuring ties. As a result, our review found that research on strong ties often vary on which strength property is used in theory and measurement. For example, some scholars have referred to a combination of the first three properties (i.e., interaction frequency, emotional intensity, and reciprocity) to define strong ties (e.g., Koseoglu et al., 2022; Perry-Smith, 2006; Robertson et al., 2020; Seibert et al., 2001b). Specifically, Perry-Smith defines strong ties as "a high level of emotional closeness and relatively frequent interaction and reciprocity" (Perry-Smith, 2006, p.86). However, strong ties are operationalized on different dimensions- at times, as a latent construct representing several dimensions (e.g., Baer, 2010; Koseoglu et al., 2022), or other times, based only on perceived closeness (e.g., Siebert et al., 2001; Siebert et al., 2014), or frequency of

interaction (e.g., Cannella & McFadyen, 2016; Granovetter, 1973; Wang et al., 2015). As our review demonstrates, the label of "strong" and "weak" ties can have different meanings and consequences depending on the defining properties used by researchers, as well as the context within which it occurs.

Further, prior research on strong and weak ties generally treats these as two ends of a spectrum. This would mean that *weak* ties, if defined as the opposite of strong ties, would represent infrequent interaction, low emotional intensity, and lack of reciprocity. However, prior research often describes weak ties based on the fourth property of strength which is *network overlap* (e.g., Baer, 2010; Hansen, 1999; Porter et al., 2022). This focus is aligned with the seminal motivation to study weak ties for its advantage in accessing non-redundant resources across distinct social circles (Granovetter, 1973). Thus, network overlap (or lack of) is the most widely recognized property of weak ties (Perry-Smith, 2014). For example, Porter and colleagues examine weak ties because they are "less likely to share the same social circles and therefore are more likely to have access to less repetitive and more novel information than strong ties" (Porter et al., 2022, p.2). Similarly, Flipo and colleagues (2022) refer to weak ties as "a source of diverse knowledge because they connect individuals from different social circles" (p.333). Thus, most of the knowledge developed on the advantages of weak ties is specific to the tie property of network overlap (see Perry-Smith, 2014 for an exception).

Given that strength is characterized by several broad properties, researchers have developed more refined types of ties and some of which drawing on a specific strength property (Borgatti & Foster, 2003). For example, *friendship ties* draws on emotional intensity as a defining characteristic (Umphress et al., 2003). Other examples of specific tie properties include hierarchical role in an organization (e.g., high-status ties; Kilduff et al., 2016), or group membership (e.g., internal and cross-community ties; Porter et al., 2022; Rotolo & Petruzzelli, 2013). Notably, as more specific types of ties were conceptualized, the juxtaposition of strong and weak is not only used to represent *types of ties* but also referred to as a *description of ties*. In other words, the strength of a tie is combined with another type of tie (e.g., *strong* friendship ties). This research direction may further confound the meaning and properties of strong and weak ties.

Although the development of more specific types of ties (rather than just strong and weak ties) helps to form a fuller and more nuanced picture of an ego's network (Borgatti & Foster, 2003), our review found that the current state of research consists of an overwhelming number of ties, many of which overlap in conceptualization. For example, researchers refer to strong and bonding ties interchangeably (Vardaman et al., 2015; Zagenczyk et al., 2010), as well as expressive, affective, and friendship ties (Gomez-Solorzano et al., 2019; Rank et al., 2010; Umphress et al., 2003). Additionally, in an effort to map an ego's extended network beyond one's organization and immediate friends and family, scholars have also conceptualized more distal forms of ties such as distant, ghost, dormant, and latent ties (Hirst et al., 2015; Kilduff et al., 2006; Lawrence, 2006; Levin et al., 2011). The properties of these ties differ only marginally; thus, recognizing their overlapping nature can result in more insights about the value of having different ties. Table 3-1 presents a comprehensive list of ties found in the management literature including definitions, and examples of outcomes.

Table 3-1.   Frequently Examined Ties and Outcomes in Management Literature

Network Ties	Count of Articles	Definition	Example Outcomes
Weak ties	70	"connect individuals from different social circles" (Flipo et al., 2022, p.333)	• Weak ties can enhance employee creativity (Perry-Smith, 2014; Perry-Smith, 2006) and in particular for culturally tight countries (Flipo et al., 2022) • Weak ties can enhance job search outcomes (Granovetter, 1973) and especially in obtaining interview offers (Barbulescu, 2011) • Weak ties can enhance sharing of non-complex knowledge (Hansen, 1999)
Strong ties	64	"a high level of emotional closeness and relative frequent interaction and reciprocity" (Perry-Smith, 2006, p.86)	• Strong ties can enhance employee creativity (Koseoglu et al., 2022) and in particular for culturally tight countries (Flipo et al., 2022) • Strong ties can enhance employee performance (Siebert et al., 2017) and in particular during early phases of new product development (Kijkuit & Van Den Ende, 2010) • Strong ties can enhance job search outcomes (i.e., obtaining job offers; Barbulescu, 2011) • Strong ties can constrain employee creativity (Perry-Smith, 2014)
Friendship ties	31	"Networks that provide support and a sense of belonging and identity" (Morrison, 2002, p.1151)	• Friendship ties can enhance new employee socialization (Morrison, 2002) • Friendship ties can enhance employee performance (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Soltis et al., 2022) • Friendship ties can enhance interpersonal citizenship behavior (Bowler & Brass, 2006) • Friendship ties can reduce employee turnover (Vardaman et al., 2015)
External ties	27	"contacts not employed by the firm" (Rogan & Mors, 2017, p.233)	• External ties can support new business development (Rogan & Mors, 2017) • External ties can enhance objective career outcomes (Gubbins & Garavan, 2016) • External ties can enhance team creativity (Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2014) • External ties can enhance employee turnover (Zhou et al., 2022)

Advice ties	23	"instrumental relationships through which employees share job- and organization-related information" (Zagenczyk et al., 2010, p.129)	• Advice ties can enhance leadership perceptions (Chiu et al., 2017) • Advice ties can enhance job search outcomes (i.e., obtaining job offers) in particular from male advice ties (Belliveau, 2005) • Advice ties tend to converge on perceived organizational support (Zagenczyk et al., 2010) and psychological safety (Schulte et al., 2012)
Negative ties	19	"personal relationships with network members who frequently engage in aversive behaviors" (Offer, 2021, p.180)	• Negative ties can reduce employee performance (Al-Atwi, 2018) • Negative ties can enhance perceived inter-group conflict (Labianca et al., 1998) • Negative ties can hinder leadership perceptions (Chiu et al., 2017) • Negative ties can reduce collaborations (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008)
Internal ties	18	"social network ties within groups" (Mehra et al., 2006, p.65)	• Internal ties can enhance employee performance (i.e., task execution and teamwork; Mehra et al., 2006; Zou & Ingram, 2013) • Internal ties can have an inverted U-relationship with team performance (Chung & Jackson, 2013) • Internal ties reduce employee turnover (Zhou et al., 2022)
Bridging ties	17	"a connection between two relatively independent social networks" (Evans & Davis, 2005, p.763)	• Bridging ties can enhance performance if ties are simmelian (Tortoriello & Krackhardt, 2010) • Bridging ties can enhance opportunity recognition in more individualistic cultural contexts (Ma et al., 2011)
Positive ties	14	"characterized by sentiments of liking" (Chiu et al., 2022; p.505)	• Positive ties can enhance leadership perceptions (Chiu et al., 2017) • Positive ties can enhance the perceived instrumental value of ties (Casciaro & Lobo, 2015) • Positive ties can enhance trust (Chua et al., 2008) • Positive ties can enhance team helping norms (Chiu et al., 2022)
Family ties	12	Ties with organizational members who are family members (Vardaman et al., 2018)	• Family ties can reduce employee turnover in family firms (Vardaman et al., 2018) • Family ties can enhance selection bias (Castilla & Poskanzer, 2022; Liu et al., 2015) • Family ties in rural India can enhance entrepreneurial success for women (Venkatesh et al., 2017)

Instrumental ties	12	"Work-related advice ties, involve a persona gathering information, advice, and resources necessary to accomplish a task" (Umphress et al., 2003, p.742)	• Instrumental ties can enhance coherence in organizational objectives (Keller et al., 2020) • Instrumental ties can enhance helping intentions (Lin, 2006) • Instrumental ties can enhance innovative productivity (Gómez-Solórzano et al., 2019)
Direct ties	11	"direct network [are] the people one actually interacts with" (Hirst et al., 2015, p.567)	• Direct ties can enhance employee turnover (Ballinger et al., 2016) • Direct ties can enhance firm alliances (Howard et al., 2019)
Board inter-lock ties	10	"an individual affiliated with one firm is appointed to serve on another firm's board" (Withers et al., 2020, p.742)	• Board inter-lock ties can enhance alliance formation (Gulati & Westphal, 1999; Howard et al., 2017) • Board inter-lock ties can enhance corporate governance (Carpenter et al., 2001) • Board inter-lock ties can enhance executive job mobility (Harrison et al., 2022)
Indirect ties	10	"indirect network [are] people one does not interact with directly, but with whom one's direct ties interact" (Hirst et al., 2015, p.567)	• Indirect ties can enhance knowledge diffusion (Singh, 2005) • Indirect ties can enhance creativity (Hirst et al., 2015) • Indirect ties can amplify perceptions of inter-group conflict (Labianca et al., 1998)
Multiplex ties	10	"connection of two actors in a network through more than one kind of relationship" (Cotton et al., 2011, p.19)	• Multiplex ties (friendship and leadership tie) can enhance management team cohesion (Song et al., 2020) • Multiplex ties (friendship and advice ties) can enhance team performance (Clarke et al., 2022) • Multiplex ties (board and friendship ties) can enhance firm performance (Westphal & Zhu, 2019; Westphal et al., 2006)
Expressive ties	7	"network contacts [that] offer access to resources like friendship, affect (liking), or social support" (Porter et al., 2019, p.513)	• Expressive ties can enhance tension in organizational objectives (Keller et al., 2020) • Expressive ties tend to converge on organizational justice perceptions (Umphress et al., 2003) • Expressive ties can enhance helping intentions (Lin, 2006)

Third-party ties	7	"a third-party friendship exists between two individuals when they are connected to each other via a friend" (Wong et al., 2021, p.392)	• Third-party ties can enhance employee cooperation (Wong et al., 2021) • Third-party ties can enhance leader perceptions (Galvin et al., 2010; Wong & Boh, 2010) • Third-party ties can enhance trust in more collectivist cultural contexts (Chua et al., 2009)
Affective ties	5	"friendship among co-workers" (Gómez-Solórzano et al., 2019, p.1600)	• Affective ties can enhance innovative productivity (Gómez-Solórzano et al., 2019) • Affective ties can enhance managerial cooperation (Rank et al., 2010)
Dormant ties	5	"two individuals who have not communicated with each other for a long time" (Levin et al., 2011)	• Dormant ties can enhance employee well-being (Yang et al., 2021) • Dormant ties can enhance knowledge and social capital (Levin et al., 2011) • Dormant ties can enhance organizational commitment (McCarthy & Levin, 2019)
Political ties	5	"ties with regulatory authorities and government officials" (Ge et al., 2019, p.1125)	• Political ties can enhance firm performance for family-owned firms in Ghana (Acquaah, 2012) • Political ties can impede firm performance for foreign-owned firms in China (Li et al., 2009) • Political ties can mitigate institutional voids in emerging markets (Ge et al., 2019)

Ties examined in less than five articles:
Active ties, Affiliation ties, Ambivalent ties, Board-friendship ties, Bonding ties, Boundary-spanning ties, Brokerage ties, Business ties, Cognitive ties, Collaboration ties, Communication Ties, Core ties, Cross-community ties, Cross-industry ties, Developmental ties, Dissimilar ties, Dissonant ties, Distal ties, Distant ties, Domestic ties, Endo-institutional ties, Energizing ties, Exo-institutional, Foreign Ties, Formal ties, Ghost ties, Global ties, Heterophilic ties, High-status ties, Homophilic ties, Informal ties, Inter-cultural, Intra-cultural, Latent ties, Local ties, Managerial ties, Non-redundant ties, Personal ties, Problem-solving ties, Professional ties, Proximal ties, Reciprocated ties, Redundant ties, Referee ties, Religious ties, Reputation ties, Semi-formal ties, Shared ties, Similar ties, Simmelian ties, Social ties, Task-work ties, Team-work ties, Transitive ties, Trust ties, Unshared ties, Upward ties, Vertical ties

Note. $N = 276$ articles. Articles can examine more than one type of tie. Review articles are excluded in the count.

Another pivotal development in network ties research that illustrates the complexity of social relations is the *multiplexity* of ties. Multiplexity represents "the extent to which two actors are connected by more than one type of relationship" (Kilduff & Brass, 2010, p.356). In other words, ties can hold multiple purposes. For example, a tie can be characterized in one context as a friendship tie whereby the ego and alter mainly share social support and engage in social activities together. In another situation, the same alter can be an instrumental and bridging tie to the ego by being a reference for a bank loan and connecting the ego to an indirect alter (Kilduff & Brass, 2010). In the workplace, multiplex ties are common as work relations are likely to encompass both instrumental and expressive components (e.g., the combination of friendship and advice tie; Casciaro & Lobo, 2008; Clarke et al., 2022; Lomi et al., 2014). Although extant research increasingly recognizes multiplex ties as a future research direction, studies are still predominantly examining simplex ties (i.e., ties that serve a single purpose; Kilduff & Brass, 2010). Nonetheless, this review can help illustrate the building blocks of multiplex ties.

Network Ties in the Social Media Context

Research on network ties in the social media context generally views and conceptualizes network ties independently of work-related relations. This may explain why our systematic review of two bodies of research only returned two overlapping articles. Notably, we found only six types of ties that were conceptualized to represent the unique relations in the social media context and distinct from ties examined in the organization context. Table 3-2 presents a list of all the ties found in the social media literature and indicates which ties are exclusive to the social media context. Furthermore, because social media network ties are studied across a variety of disciplines, a diverse set of outcomes have been examined including eWOM (i.e., electronic word of mouth), brand attractiveness, content sharing behaviors (i.e., viral spread of information), psychological well-being, and social and political movements.

Table 3-2.   Frequently Examined Ties and Outcomes in Social Media Literature

Network Ties	Count of Articles	Example Outcomes
Weak ties	40	• Weak ties can exacerbate the negative effects of sponsored reviews on purchase intentions (Wang et al., 2021) • Weak ties can trigger malicious envy (Feng et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021) • Weak ties exacerbate the deleterious effects of social media on depression (Griffith et al., 2022)
Strong ties	38	• Strong ties can enhance eWOM intentions (Baykal & Karaca, 2022) and in particular, when the ego perceives benign envy Yan et al., 2022) • Strong ties can trigger benign envy (Feng et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021) • Strong ties can enhance social support (Kraemer et al., 2021)
Friendship ties	5	• Friendship ties can enhance conformity of "Liking" behavior (Egebark & Ekstrom, 2018) • Friendship ties can enhance risky behaviors (i.e., drinking and smoking; Huang et al., 2014)
Bridging ties	4	• Bridging ties can enhance collective action (Theocharis et al., 2017) • Bridging ties can enhance municipality performance (Norbutas & Corten, 2018)
Bonding ties	3	• Bonding ties can reduce municipality performance (Norbutas & Corten, 2018) • Bonding ties can enhance crowdfunding (Wang, 2016)
Expressive ties	3	• Expressive ties can enhance employee agility (Zhu et al., 2021) • Expressive ties can enhance innovative job performance (Chen et al., 2019; Wu, 2013)
Instrumental ties	3	• Instrumental ties can enhance employee agility (Zhu et al., 2021) • Instrumental ties can enhance in-role job performance (Chen et al., 2019; Wu, 2013)
Personal ties	3	• Personal ties can enhance content sharing intentions (Seo et al., 2018) • Personal ties can enhance purchase intentions (Shmargad & Watts, 2016)

Ties examined in less than three article:
Advice ties, Business ties, Close ties, Common ties, Communal ties, **Content ties*,** Direct ties, Distant ties, Emotional ties, External ties, Followership ties, Family ties, Global ties, **Incoming ties*,** Indirect ties, Internal ties, Latent ties, Non-close ties, **Outgoing ties*, Parasocial ties*, Phantasmal ties*, Representational ties*,** Romantic ties, Social ties, Transnational ties, Transitive Ties, Utilitarian ties

Note. N = 71 articles. **(*)** denotes ties that were found in the social media literature but not in the management literature in our review. Articles can examine more than one type of tie. Review articles are excluded in the count. For definitions of ties, refer to Table 3.1.

We found several trends in the research on social media network ties. First, similar to the management field, the most frequently examined ties are strong and weak ties; yet, the properties of tie strength under examination vary across studies. For example, some studies define strong and weak ties using a combination of strength properties (e.g., frequency of interaction, emotional intensity, reciprocity), while other studies refer to a single property. In the latter case, researchers may refer to strong and weak ties interchangeably with other ties such as bi-directional and uni-directional ties (i.e., based on reciprocity; Zhang & Godes, 2018) and close and non-close ties (i.e., based on perceived closeness; Rozzell et al., 2014). Furthermore, studies use varying measures for strength of tie such as perceived closeness, time spent on social media, or reciprocated friendships online (e.g., Griffith et al., 2022; Rozzell et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2022; Zhang & Godes, 2018). Therefore, similar to the management field, research findings on strong and weak ties can be disjointed in the social media literature as the labels of "strong" and "weak" are used to represent different tie properties and operationalizations.

Second, most studies focus on examining the effects of network size rather than network content on social media (e.g., van den Broek et al., 2019; Zhang & Liu, 2019). These studies tend to examine whether a larger social media network size produces more social capital (e.g., crowdfunding, social movements, eWOM). Therefore, these studies treat all network ties on social media as one uniform type and producing the same effects. For example, Kahne and Bowyer (2018) examines the influence of social media network size on political engagement. They refer to all ties on social media as weak ties and reason that more weak ties increases political engagement through more exposure to political discussions (Kahne & Bowyer, 2018). Not surprisingly, emerging research recognizes that the effects of social network ties can be better explained when both the type and content of social media ties are considered rather than network size alone (e.g., Azer & Ranaweera, 2022; Garg & Telang, 2018).

Finally, our review returned a small number of interpersonal ties that were conceptualized to account for the uniqueness of relations in the social media context (e.g., parasocial and reputational ties; Lee & Yuan, 2020). In particular, these ties draw on the distinctiveness of the social media environment in facilitating unilateral relations (i.e.,

one-way relationship). To illustrate a distinction from in-person relations, social media allows an ego to view information about the alter prior to formally connecting. What's more, the information posted by the alter can be curated to form a virtual identity or persona of the alter (Lee &Yuan, 2020). Therefore, an ego can develop an emotional connection with the alter's online persona and manifest in a one-way imaginary friendship (i.e., parasocial tie; Lee & Yuan, 2020). Thus, emerging ties conceptualized uniquely to the social media context point to the ability to form unilateral relations and are yet to be understood in the organizational context.

Typology of Social Network Ties

In this section, a framework is presented to organize and synthesize the burgeoning number of network ties examined in management and social media research. Not only does our framework help to categorize numerous network ties across the organizational and social media contexts, but also provides a valuable lens to understand how value can be generated from network ties based on particular tie characteristics. Figure 3-1 presents our typology consisting of eight unique types or categories of ties. These unique types are formed by intersecting two dimensions: tie strength properties and tie content. These two dimensions are aligned with prior work by Robertson and colleagues (2020) who recognized that tie strength (i.e., strong or weak) and content (i.e., instrumental or expressive resources) jointly can explain the unique qualities and outcomes of ties (Robertson et al., 2020). By intersecting the two dimensions, a more nuanced description and comparison of ties is generated than relying on either dimension alone.

In the first dimension of tie strength properties, we extend the work of Robertson and colleagues (2020) by delineating the strength dimension into the four properties outlined by Granovetter (1973): frequency of interaction, emotional intensity, reciprocity, and network overlap. Frequency of interaction captures the time commitment required by the ego to maintain the tie (Granovetter, 1973). Emotional intensity refers to the ego's psychological closeness to the alter (Robertson et al., 2020). Ties are reciprocal when

there is two-way exchange of resources (Robertson et al., 2020). Lastly, network overlap represents the extent to which the actors have common ties (Granovetter, 1973).

By delineating the strength properties, we provide increased precision in the characteristics that differentiate network ties. As our review illustrates, the four properties are not always aligned and can complement, substitute, or counter each other. Consider these contrasting effects of strong and weak ties on generating instrumental resources: a *strong tie*, if defined by high emotional intensity, is beneficial for sharing complex information (Seibert et al., 2017). However, if a strong tie is defined by high network overlap, the information is redundant and less valuable (Granovetter, 1973). Similarly, *weak ties* also return different instrumental value depending on the defining property. A weak tie defined by low emotional intensity is beneficial for gaining creative information (Perry-Smith & Shalley, 2014); however, a weak tie defined by low reciprocity can return low quality information if the alter does not expect any future return from the ego (Hansen, 1999). In sum, the strength properties dimension of our framework helps to determine the quality of the potential resources provided by the network tie.

The second dimension of tie content represents the embedded resources (i.e., instrumental or expressive resources) afforded to the ego through relations with the alter. Individuals derive value from their social networks by gaining access to the embedded resources also known as one's social capital (Lin, 1999). Thus, tie content is an important dimension to differentiate the potential value provided by network ties. Specifically, instrumental and expressive resources represent two broad categories of resources that are most often examined and juxtaposed as the content of ties (e.g., Dabos & Rousseau, 2013; Gomez-Solorzano et al., 2019; Porter et al., 2019; Robertson et al., 2020; Umphress et al., 2003). Instrumental resources are job-related resources such as information, expertise, advice, novelty, and materials (Porter et al., 2019). Instrumental resources are job- and work-related and can facilitate skills and task mastery (Porter et al., 2019). In comparison, expressive resources are less tangible resources such as compassion, trust, and emotional and social support (Robertson et al., 2020). Expressive resources are valuable for facilitating social aspects of work such as team cohesion and social integration (Porter et al., 2019; Robertson et al., 2020). Moreover, research finds

that both instrumental and expressive resources are important for enhancing work performance (Clarke et al., 2022). For example, instrumental resources such as tacit know-how can help execute a work task while expressive resources such as encouragement can help overcome task challenges (Clarke et al., 2022). Hence, network ties can offer either or both types of resources that are important and often complementary for achieving work outcomes (Clarke et al., 2022; Robertson et al., 2020).

Figure 3-1. **Typology of Network Ties by Tie Strength Properties and Tie Content**

		Tie Content	
		Instrumental Resources	**Expressive Resources**
Tie Strength Properties	**Interaction Frequency**	**Type 1** *High* interaction frequency provides more timely and relevant instrumental resources but resources lack novelty (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016; Hansen, 1999) Examples: Strong ties *Low* interaction frequency provides more novel instrumental resources but lack credibility (Hirst et al., 2015; Levin et al., 2011) Examples: Indirect, dormant, and latent ties	**Type 2** *High* interaction frequency provides trust, loyalty, and emotional and social support (Robertson et al., 2020; Umphress et al., 2003) Examples: Strong ties *Low* interaction frequency provides sense of belonging, inspiration and motivation (Lawrence, 2006; McCarthy & Levin, 2019) Examples: Distant, dormant, and ghost ties
	Emotional Intensity	**Type 3** *High* emotional intensity provides more quality instrumental resources but imposes obligations on ego to utilize the alter's recommendations (Robertson et al., 2020) Examples: Strong instrumental ties *Low* emotional intensity provides novel instrumental resources (Granovetter, 1973) Examples: Weak ties	**Type 4** *High* emotional intensity provides trust, compassion, and social and emotional support (Lee & Yuan, 2020; Porter et al., 2019; Umphress et al., 2003) Examples: Expressive, friendship, affective, and parasocial ties *Low* emotional intensity is yet to be examined with expressive resources Examples: N/A

	Reciprocity	**Type 5**	**Type 6**
		High reciprocity provides more quality instrumental resources, but actors are bind by mutual expectations (Hansen, 1999; Robertson et al., 2020) Examples: Strong ties	*High* reciprocity provides more mutual understanding and trust (Hansen, 1999; Robertson et al., 2020) Examples: Friendship ties
		Low reciprocity provides generic instrumental resources without the mutual expectations to be helpful (Hansen, 1999; Lai & Fu, 2021) Examples: Representational ties	*Low* reciprocity provides imagined friendship, social support, and a sense of belonging (Lee & Yuan, 2020) Examples: Distant, parasocial and phantasmal ties
	Network Overlap	**Type 7**	**Type 8**
		High network overlap provides specialized tacit knowledge, but instrumental resources can be redundant (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016; Granovetter, 1973) Examples: Strong ties	*High* network overlap provides trust and willingness to help (Ertug et al., 2020; Kotha & George, 2012) Examples: Family ties
		Low network overlap provides novel instrumental resources (Burt, 2004; Granovetter, 1973) Examples: non-redundant, bridging, boundary-spanning, board-interlock ties	*Low* network overlap is yet to be examined with expressive resources Examples: N/A

Within each type of tie, we provide examples of prototypical ties, drawn from both the management and social media literatures, that have been explicitly defined or examined on the joint tie strength property and content. Our approach to identifying prototypical ties included several steps to cross-reference descriptive information about each type of extant tie. This included reviewing articles for the definitions of the tie(s) under examination and noting specific tie properties and content that researchers use to define or juxtapose sets of ties to determine the distinguishing characteristics. If there were no clear definitions provided for the tie examined, we referred to how the researchers measured the ties (if applicable). Finally, the prototypical ties may represent

examples of varying levels of the tie strength property (e.g., ties can be defined by high or low frequency of interaction) combined with each tie content.

Type 1: Frequency of Interaction and Instrumental Resources

The first type of tie is characterized by interaction frequency and provision of instrumental resources. Ties that have *high* frequency of interaction (often referred to simply as "strong" ties) may contain instrumental resources. Research suggests ties that interact frequently contain mutual understandings and are more likely to generate timely and relevant resources (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016). However, researchers also recognize that strong ties would have access to similar sources of information, making the information (or other types of resources) redundant and less novel (Granovetter, 1973; Hansen, 1999). Therefore, research that examines ties with these two characteristics (frequency of interaction and instrumental resources) jointly are often highlighting the advantages of "weak" ties. In other words, weak ties have *low* interaction frequency; yet the ego may still benefit from instrumental resources (e.g., information about external job opportunities, etc.; Granovetter, 1973).

While the general perception of ties is that they require a large time commitment to maintain and generate value, "weak" ties challenge this assumption (Levin et al., 2011; McCarthy & Levin, 2019). By way of limited interaction, there should be less common knowledge between the actors. Hence, the ego may gain novel information when connecting with these alters. For example, the ego may seek weak ties occasionally for a new and different perspective. Nonetheless, there could be risks to the instrumental resources provided by ties with infrequent interaction. The ego may not be able to validate the credibility of the information or ask for clarification on complex information (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016; Hansen, 1999).

Furthermore, because researchers are interested in mapping an ego's extended network that can be potentially resourceful (e.g., Granovetter, 1973; Hirst et al., 2015; Khattab et al., 2020), several "weaker" forms of ties have been conceptualized that are prototypical of this type including **indirect**, **dormant**, and **latent** ties. Specifically, these ties represent *low* interaction frequency and provision of instrumental resources. For

example, indirect ties are formed when the ego and alter are connected because of a common tie, but the key property of indirect ties is that they do not have any direct interaction (Hirst et al., 2015; Labianca et al., 1998). A few studies have referred to indirect ties as transitive ties or transitive triads (e.g., Josefy et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2014). With indirect ties, the ego gains access to non-redundant resources (e.g., novel information) from the alter though the common tie. Interestingly, scholars sought to examine how far removed from the indirect alter can the ego continue to receive benefits (Hirst et al., 2015). They found that only immediate indirect ties produced significant creativity gains and those further removed by more degrees of separation did not have any effect on the ego's creativity (Hirst et al., 2015).

In dormant and latent ties, the ego and alter are not currently interacting but have the potential to reconnect for exchange of instrumental resources (Levin et al., 2011; Mariotti & Delbridge, 2012). Dormant ties represent a relationship that has been neglected such that the two actors have not interacted in a long period of time and has "drifted apart" for various reasons. However, there is potential for reconnection if the ego desired. Therefore, dormant ties do not include relations that were severed due to conflict (Levin et al., 2011). Research finds that reactivated dormant ties can provide more novel information and were more efficient to consult than currently active ties (Levin et al., 2011). Even when dormant ties are not reactivated, simply having internal dormant ties can enhance an ego's organizational commitment due to the belief in potential future collaborations and resources (McCarthy & Levin, 2019). Relatedly, **latent** ties are currently inactive relationships found in research on project-based work (Mariotti & Delbridge, 2012). For example, actors may have a prior relationship from collaborating on a project and the actors may not interact again until the next project opportunity (Mariotti & Delbridge, 2012). Although both dormant and latent ties are defined by the same tie strength property and tie content, latent ties are more specific in the reason for current inactivity and reconnection.

Type 2: Frequency of Interaction and Expressive Resources

The second type of ties is defined by frequency of interaction and the provision of expressive resources. In this type, researchers have conceptualized ties with both levels of the tie property- frequent (e.g., strong ties) and infrequent (e.g., distant, ghost, and dormant) interaction, and containing expressive resources. For example, ties that have frequent interaction and expressive resources are generally coined as "strong" ties (Robertson et al., 2020; Umphress et al., 2003). Frequent interaction represents the time and energy that the actors invest into the relationship. Through frequent interaction, actors are more likely to converge on perspectives and beliefs (Granovetter, 1973; Robertson et al., 1973). Therefore, these ties are more likely to contain resources such as shared identity, validation, and loyalty (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016; Umphress et al., 2003).

In contrast, ties can also encompass infrequent (or no) interaction and still provide expressive resources. This combination may appear counterintuitive; however, scholars have conceptualized ties with infrequent interaction and found that indeed, these ties can provide egos with resources such as inspiration and a sense of community (e.g., distant ties; Lawrence, 2006). Since infrequent interaction and expressive resources are a more counterintuitive combination, prototypical ties of these characteristics are described including distant, ghost, and dormant ties.

Firstly, an ego can form a **distant tie** with any individual that the ego "has information about in his or her work environment, even the simple knowledge of their existence" (Lawrence, 2006, p.82). Distant ties only include an awareness component and does not involve any interaction. For example, distant ties may form when an ego is made aware of other employees through corporate newsletters, e-mails, or gossip (Lawrence, 2006). Because distant ties have no interaction, it is rare for any exchange of instrumental resources to occur. However, the ego may receive expressive resources such as a sense of belonging and motivation from knowing about the alter (Lawrence, 2006). Distant ties can help the ego make sense of the work environment, which is aligned with the benefits of expressive resources in helping with social cohesion and integration (Lawrence, 2006;

Robertson et al., 2020). Although a tie with no interaction may appear inconsequential, research demonstrates that these ties influence how the ego construes his or her social reality, as well as the ego's attitudes, needs, and behaviors (Lawrence, 2006).

Next, **ghost ties** are also prototypical of having no interaction and provision of expressive resources. Ghost ties represent relationships that were once active but are now considered a "past relationship" because the alter is no longer physically present (Kilduff et al., 2006). Examples of ghost ties include ex-colleagues who have left the organization, yet memories of the alter still linger. The ego may remember which office the alter used to occupy and draw on what the alter would say if he or she was still present (Kilduff et al., 2006). Since ghost ties are defined as memories, they may return more expressive forms of resources such as a sense of relatedness and motivation (Kilduff et al., 2006; Walsh et al., 2018).

Lastly, as mentioned in the first type, **dormant ties** represent currently inactive relationships but have the potential of reconnecting. While dormant ties were initially examined for the provision of instrumental resources (Levin et al., 2011), more recent research suggests dormant ties can also contain expressive resources (McCarthy & Levin, 2019; Yang et al., 2021). Because dormant ties represent past relationships, there can exist residue feelings, memories, understandings, and assumptions (McCarthy & Levin, 2019; Yang et al., 2021). As such, these past relations can be reactivated and translated to valuable resources in the form of trust and social support. Thus, recent research finds that egos benefit from reconnecting with dormant ties to help cope with current work and personal challenges (Yang et al., 2021).

Type 3: Emotional Intensity and Instrumental Resources

Although a prototypical tie that is examined on the intersection of emotional intensity and instrumental resources was not found in our review, studies have alluded to ties of this nature. For example, Robertson and colleagues (2020) describe both parties in "strong instrumental ties" as emotionally connected and having mutual understanding of each other's needs. Although the researchers referred to a combination of properties to define "strong" including emotional intensity, interaction frequency, and reciprocity, they

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emphasized the uniqueness of emotional intensity in these ties. In emotionally intense ties, the ego and alter share an emotional bond and have greater motivation to provide helpful and relevant resources. Thus, the ego is more likely to benefit from instrumental resources that are high-quality, timely, and personalized (Robertson et al., 2020). Examples of such ties can include mentoring and coaching relations (Robertson et al., 2020). Nonetheless, there could be potential disadvantages to these ties such as requiring considerable time and energy to maintain and imposing an obligation on the ego to utilize unfit resources out of loyalty and closeness to the alter (Robertson et al., 2020). For example, the ego may feel pressure to participate in work activities recommended by the alter that the ego is not personally interested in (Robertson et al., 2020). As we describe in the next type of tie, emotional intensity can accompany the sharing of instrumental resources, but usually with the exchange of expressive resources as well.

Type 4: Emotional Intensity and Expressive Resources

The combination of emotional intensity and provision of expressive resources is most representative in "**expressive ties**." In these ties, the ego feels close and intimate with the alter and seeks the alter for relatability and to confide in (Porter et al., 2019; Umphress et al., 2003). The ego benefits from expressive resources from the alter, such as compassion, emotional support, and mutual understanding (Cannella & McFadyen, 2016, Robertson et al., 2020). Researchers commonly refer to expressive ties interchangeably with **friendship** and **affective ties** (e.g., Dabos & Rousseau, 2013; Gomez-Solorzano et al., 2019; Lee, 2020; Phua et al., 2017; Rank et al., 2010; Umphress et al., 2003). This set of ties (expressive, friendship, and affective) overlap in tie strength properties and content. Researchers have attempted to distinguish friendship ties from the rest by defining friendships as personal relations outside of work (Rank et al., 2010). In other words, actors tied by friendship will engage in social activities independent of work activities such as "invitation to each other's homes" (Rank et al., 2010, p.752). However, most studies still refer to these ties interchangeably.

Interestingly, another prototypical tie of this type is conceptualized in the media context. Parasocial ties are characterized by high emotional intensity and provision of

expressive resources. These ties represent relations that an ego forms with a media "persona" (Lee & Yuan, 2020). Horton and Wohl (1956) initially conceptualized **parasocial ties** to understand the emotional connection that individuals can forge with television actors (e.g., celebrities, talk show hosts, etc.). The scholars recognized that some individuals regard celebrities or even fictional characters portrayed by actors as their friends and that these imagined relations can become intense and intimate manifesting in deep loyalty (Horton & Wohl, 1956). Parasocial ties, despite being imaginary, can provide the ego with expressive resources such as a sense of community, relatedness, and support (Lee & Yuan, 2020).

Social media provides an environment for parasocial ties to thrive (Lee & Yuan, 2020; Lueck, 2015). Social media provides the ability to have more realistic and "illusive interactions" with celebrity figures (Lee & Yuan, 2020; Lueck, 2015). For example, social media influencers (e.g., content creators, vloggers, etc.) can be skilled at generating perceived closeness and intimacy with followers through conversational style vlogs, live streaming videos, and addressing viewers as "friends" (Lee & Yuan, 2020). Thus, parasocial relations are often studied in the marketing domain to understand how celebrities and lately, social media influencers, generate value from developing perceived closeness in followers (e.g., Hwang & Zhang, 2018). Overall, both real and fictional friendship ties can exemplify this type based on emotional intensity and provision of expressive resources.

Type 5: Reciprocity and Instrumental Resources

In the next type, ties can be characterized by reciprocity and provision of instrumental resources. In reciprocal ties, help and advice should flow both ways between the actors (Hansen, 1999; Robertson et al., 2020). An ego may expect that similar resources shared with the alter will be eventually returned in the future (Robertson et al., 2020). Ties that have expectations and norms established (especially in reciprocity) are representative of "strong" ties (Hansen, 1999; Robertson et al., 2020). However, most research that examines the provision of instrumental resources (e.g., advice, job search information, etc.) are focused on weaker forms of ties, meaning low reciprocity.

A notable exception is Hansen (1999) who examines the benefits and consequences of gaining instrumental resources from ties characterized by high and low reciprocity. Hansen (1999) presents two sides of the same coin where ties with high reciprocity norms can be beneficial in gaining instrumental resources because the actors have greater willingness and obligation to help one another. However, the same obligation can become a burden such that an ego expends significant energy and time in helping others that his or her own work suffers. In comparison, weak ties with less reciprocity expectations can still generate instrumental resources but with less binding expectations on both sides (Hansen, 1999).

From a social media perspective, egos can develop many ties that have low reciprocity expectations. One example that is prototypical of low reciprocity and instrumental resources is **representational ties.** These ties represent *no* reciprocity and the provision of instrumental resources. Specifically, representational ties are "formed through public display of affiliation" (Lai & Fu, 2021). Social media allows an ego to publicly display unilateral connections with other parties by becoming a follower, retweeting, tagging, or joining an interest group (Thai & Wang, 2020). Critically, the affiliations may not include any other form of direct interaction or mutual exchange between the parties. However, representational ties may provide instrumental value to the ego such as building his or her reputation and brand name by affiliation to others (Lai & Fu, 2021). For example, individuals or organizations may retweet information posted by a social movement group (i.e., forming a representational tie) to publicly display their affiliation and signal their brand's values. Therefore, representational ties illustrate the potential of gaining instrumental resources from a tie that contains neither exchange expectations nor recognition from the alter.

Type 6: Reciprocity and Expressive Resources

Similar to Type 4 (emotional intensity and expressive resources), friendship and parasocial ties are also prototypical of ties characterized by reciprocity (i.e., high or low) and expressive resources (i.e., trust, compassion, social support). Ties that are prototypical of more than one type illustrates that they are broadly defined by a greater

breath of tie characteristics. Specifically, ties with strong reciprocity expectations, such as friendship ties, have greater mutual understandings and interdependence (Hansen, 1999; Roberston et al., 2020). Hence, the ego and alter are likely to seek one another for expressive resources based on the reciprocal trust and norms established. Nonetheless, ties with low reciprocity expectations, such as distant, parasocial, and phantasmal ties are examples of this type because they can also provide expressive resources to the ego.

First, **friendship ties** are characterized by high reciprocity and expressive resources (Porter et al., 2019; Umphress et al., 2003). Friendship ties contain mutual understanding and trust, which requires both parties to commit to mutual exchange and disclosure such that the ego develops feelings of closeness and intimacy with the alter (Granovetter, 1973; Robertson et al., 2020; Umphress et al., 2003). In contrast, **distant, parasocial** and **phantasmal ties** are prototypical of ties with *no* reciprocity, yet still containing expressive resources. As mentioned, distant ties in organizations represent only one-way awareness of the alter from the ego (Lawrence, 2006). Similarly, parasocial ties are unilateral such that the ego forms an emotional connection with a media persona (Lee & Yuan, 2020). The alter is regarded as a persona because it is highly unlikely that the ego and alter have had any exchange before. Nonetheless, these ties provide the ego with a sense of belonging, relatedness, and imaginary friendship. Lastly, phantasmal ties are illusionary relationships that an ego has with people or entities, such as celebrities, brands, or even someone deceased (Litt & Hargittai, 2016). Researchers have studied phantasmal ties to understand who social media users may imagine as the audience of their online content (Litt & Hargittai, 2016). The researchers found that social media users would imagine their phantasmal ties as the audience and specifically, craft their social media posts for phantasmal ties even after acknowledging that reciprocal recognition from the alter would be extremely rare (Litt & Hargittai, 2016).

Type 7: Network Overlap and Instrumental Resources

This type embodies ties that are characterized by the extent to which the actors' networks overlap and provision of instrumental resources. Similar to Type 1, these characteristics are also the quintessential description of "weak ties" as having limited

network overlap and access to non-redundant instrumental resources (Granovetter, 1973). Compared to "strong" ties where the actors are more likely in the same social circle and possess similar resources, "weak" ties are from different social circles and provide access to different instrumental resources (Granovetter, 1973). Since weak ties are frequently examined, there are several prototypical ties that fit this type including non-redundant, bridging, boundary-spanning and board-interlock ties.

To start, **non-redundant, boundary-spanning, and bridging ties** commonly represent actors with limited network overlap and as such, grants the ego access to valuable instrumental resources (Burt, 1992; Kijkuit & Van Den Ende, 2007; Lomi et al., 2014). In non-redundant ties, the ego and alter have no common alters (Kijkuit & Van Den Ende, 2007). Similarly, boundary-spanning ties cut across units within an organization (representing two separate networks) and can provide access to non-redundant resources (Guo et al., 2022; Lomi et al., 2014). Lastly, bridging ties also fill gaps between networks, known as structural holes, such that the ego can broker non-redundant information between two networks (Burt, 2004). Research on bridging ties emphasizes that these ties are more than simply a connection with an unconnected actor; a bridging tie contains the abilities and resources to facilitate exchange between two networks (Burt, 1992). This may include diffusing and exchange of diverse and non-redundant ideas, perspectives, and information (e.g., brokerage activities; Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973). In sum, research on this set of ties generally examines how access to non-redundant resources and information can facilitate greater knowledge transfer, work performance and creativity. However, ties that provide access to non-redundant networks are found to be consistently related to ego turnover intentions, in part, from learning about external job opportunities (Granovetter, 1973; Harrison et al., 2022; McPherson et al., 1992; Porter et al., 2019).

Another representative tie of low network overlap and provision of instrumental resources is **board-interlock ties**. Directors from different organizations come together to act as board members of a focal organization (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001). Thus, board-interlock ties form between the Directors serving on the board of the focal organization (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001). Moreover, board-interlock ties are typically

strategically formed based on the needs of the focal organization (Westphal et al., 2006). For example, Directors are appointed based on the focal organization's need to acquire certain resources that the Director may have access to through his or her network and firm (Westphal et al., 2006). In other words, the Directors come from different networks and can facilitate access to unique instrumental resources for the firm. Thus, research finds that through board-interlock ties, firms can better manage resource dependencies, environmental uncertainty, and inter-firm cooperation (Carpenter & Westphal, 2001; Westphal et al., 2006; Withers, 2020). However, researchers have also documented concerns with board-interlock ties such as, unequal information exchange between Directors about their respective firms, information asymmetry about the alter's competencies, challenges in establishing trust, and turnover of Directors (Gulati & Westphal, 1999; Harrison et al., 2022).

Type 8: Network overlap and Expressive Resources

This last type is characterized by extent of network overlap and the provision of expressive resources. Having high network overlap means the actors know many people in common and would have similar perspectives and shared experiences (Granovetter, 1973). This combination of tie characteristics is exemplified by **family or kinship ties.** Family ties have high network overlap because of common family members (Granovetter, 1973). Research examining family ties (in comparison to non-family or general business ties) typically focus on the expressive resources provided to the ego such as a sense of identity, willingness to help, trust, and emotional support (e.g., Ertug et al., 2020; Ge et al., 2019; Khayesi et al., 2014; Kotha & George, 2012). Although some research examines support such as start-up resources provided by family and non-family ties, these studies often highlight the unique expressive and affective components of family ties that differentiate the support they provide compared to other ties (Kotha & George, 2012). For example, family ties are more willing, trusting, and loyal in helping generate start-up funds compared to non-family ties. Thus, family ties are classified as providing unique expressive resources. Moreover, research recognizes both advantages and disadvantages of family ties. For example, common goals and shared experiences in family ties can facilitate greater cooperation and performance. Yet, family ties can also

lead to nepotism and turnover of non-family members (Ertug et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2015; Vardaman et al., 2018).

Additional Examples of Ties

Our review also found several ties that are more generally defined and as a result, could not be classified by tie strength properties and tie content including positive, negative, and simmelian ties. Thus, we describe this set of ties to exemplify ties that are more broadly defined in the literature, but do not fit within our proposed typology.

First, **positive** and **negative ties** represent the dominant bipolar emotions within ties. In positive ties, the ego experiences positive sentiment (e.g., pleasantness, liking, warmth) towards the alter (Methot et al., 2017). In comparison, egos with negative ties experience "feelings of dislike or has negative behavioral intentions toward another" (Al-Atwi, 2017, p.648). Negative ties can represent a toxic or adversarial relationship. Research shows that the affective content (i.e., positive and negative sentiment) of ties can have a significant influence on work outcomes. For example, research demonstrates that people "need active liking" when seeking a work partner or colleague for a project and when there are active feelings of dislike, the competence of the alter becomes irrelevant in the partnership decision (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008). However, it is not clear whether and which type of resources or strength property defines positive and negative ties. In other words, positive and negative ties may contain either instrumental or expressive resources. An ego can have positive sentiments towards an alter whether the alter provides career advice or emotional support. Moreover, research examines affective content as a type of tie (e.g., positive and negative ties) and characteristic of ties (e.g., advice ties can be positive, negative, ambivalent (both positive and negative), or indifferent (neither positive nor negative; Methot et al., 2017). Thus, the affective content of ties is too broad to define ties within the current typology.

There is also growing research on **simmelian ties**. These represent three strongly connected actors often called a clique (Gomez-Solorzano et al., 2019; Krackhardt, 1998). In contrast to indirect ties where the ego and alter only interact through a common tie, in simmelian ties, all three actors have high interaction with one another. Research on

simmelian ties generally examines the influence that the common tie has on the tie dynamics of the focal dyad (Vardaman et al., 2015; Wong et al., 2021). A strong common tie can influence the bargaining power of both actors and serve as a mediator in situations of conflict (Wong et al., 2021). Although simmelian ties are defined as "strong" ties characterized by network overlap of all three actors, these ties could provide either instrumental, expressive, or both forms of resources. However, the tie content is not a defining characteristic of simmelian ties, nor is it clearly defined; therefore, simmelian ties were not classified as prototypical of a type of tie.

Future Research Directions and Way Forward

From our comprehensive review of research on social network ties in management and social media literatures, we propose several future research directions that can integrate the two bodies of research and produce opportunities for cross-fertilization of knowledge. We propose opportunities for future research to (1) increase clarity of network tie content and strength properties, (2) strengthen the understanding of reciprocity in ties, and (3) examine the multiplexity of ties across organizational and social media contexts.

Increase clarity of network tie content and strength properties

We offer two future research directions that can generate more clarity in and distinction among network ties. First, there are many ties that have overlapping tie characteristics. While this review identified many network ties conceptualized in prior research, we argue that more distinction among the characteristics of ties is needed to reveal the unique effects of each tie. For example, many researchers refer to expressive, friendship, bonding, and affective ties interchangeably and often define this set of ties by the same tie strength properties (e.g., emotional intensity, interaction frequency, reciprocity) and tie content (e.g., social and emotional support; Gomez-Solorzano et al., 2019; Lee, 2020; Phua et al., 2017; Rank et al., 2010; Umphress et al., 2003). Hence, our typology treats these ties as equivalent ties (Type 4 based on emotional intensity and expressive resources). Therefore, future research needs to examine more closely the

characteristics of existing ties and develop greater distinction between ties in order to increase the precision in capturing the effects of networks. As an example, Rank and colleagues (2020) suggested friendship ties can be distinguished within this set of overlapping ties by defining friendships as social ties *outside of the workplace*. Research on friendship ties can thus be differentiated from bonding and affective ties by examining the effects of external social support.

Additionally, there are opportunities for future research to develop greater clarity in the tie strength properties. Although the distinction between strong and weak ties has developed an extensive body of research with invaluable knowledge, current findings on the effects of strong and weak ties may be confounded as the tie strength properties under examination are not clearly defined or operationalized. For example, research shows *strong* ties defined by frequent interaction, emotional intensity and psychological closeness can generate trust and compassion (Robertson et al., 2020). However, although counterintuitive, research suggests that *weak* ties may also generate trust and compassion through infrequent interaction and limited network overlap. That is, because weak ties are less likely to be bind by norms and expectations, and gossip is less likely to spread in weak ties. Therefore, the ego can trust in weak ties for emotional support that contains less judgement (McCarthy & Levin, 2019; Walsh, 2018; Yang et al., 2021). This example highlights the importance for future research to clearly distinguish the strength properties under examination to reduce the confound in effects when using the generic terms of "strong" and "weak" ties.

Strengthen the understanding of reciprocity in ties

Reciprocity is an important strength property for future research to explicitly consider in the context of ties developed on social media. Reciprocity is generally defined as two-way exchange of resources (Granovetter, 1973; Robertson et al., 2020). Our review found an emerging focus on the development of unilateral ties, which refers to ties with low or no reciprocity. Across both organizational and social media contexts, researchers have conceptualized ties with minimal reciprocity expectations (e.g., distant, ghost, parasocial and representational ties). For example, both distant and parasocial ties

represent an ego's awareness of the alter but no exchange exists (in interaction or resources). These ties challenge a traditional assumption that ties should be mutual and reciprocal to be maintained and return benefits (Granovetter, 1973). Yet not only can unilateral ties return benefits, but they can also be socially meaningful and offer expressive resources to the ego (Lawrence, 2006), which highlights the need for more understanding of the role of reciprocity in network ties.

We offer two future research directions to strengthen the understanding of reciprocity. First, future research can benefit from re-defining the meaning of reciprocity to account for one-way ties. Unilateral ties can refer to one-way resource sharing, or in more extreme cases, one-way awareness between the actors such that only the ego knows the alter and the alter is unaware of the ego's existence. It is unclear whether simply awareness of one another (with or without acknowledgement) is a unique property that has distinct effects from low reciprocity (exchange in resources). To illustrate, imagine if unilateral ties (only the ego is aware of the alter) on social media are reciprocal. An ego can "follow" a high-status alter on social media and form a unilateral tie. Although the alter is not aware of the ego, the actors may still exchange resources. The ego can receive valuable resources (e.g., information and motivation) from the alter by viewing the alter's content shared with all followers. What the alter may gain in return is more followers and influence despite no direct contact with or awareness of followers as an individual. Thus, social media enhances the ease in the exchange of resources simultaneously with many alters and the development of unilateral ties (one-way awareness). Therefore, it is valuable for future research to examine how reciprocity and awareness (unilateral or mutual) in ties are related and tease apart their effects.

Second, future research is needed to examine the consequences of ties with low reciprocity on social media. While social media provides ease in developing unilateral ties that can return benefits, it is important to examine potential drawbacks to low reciprocity. Ties with low reciprocity are considered "weak" ties, which should provide access to both quantity and diversity of resources (Granovetter, 1973; Ustüner & Godes, 2006). Yet, ties with low reciprocity do not guarantee that either actor will gain resources in return. Thus, weak ties with low reciprocity may limit both actors' motivation to share

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quality resources with one another (Hansen, 1999). Specifically in the social media context, rather than generating an abundance of resources through large networks of weak unreciprocated ties, these ties may have negative consequences. Indeed, research suggests weak ties on social media may return low quality and homogeneous resources (Himelboim et al., 2016; Koroleva & Kane, 2017; Wang & Song, 2020). Overall, given the rise in unilateral ties especially in the social media context, future research can benefit from re-defining reciprocity in ties, as well as examining the benefits and consequences of ties with lower reciprocity.

Examine the multiplexity of ties across organizational and social media contexts.

An important future research direction is to examine how social media can facilitate multiplex ties. As previously noted, multiplex ties contain more than one purpose (Kilduff & Brass, 2010). Social media provides a medium for work ties to continue interacting outside of the work context. It is common for colleagues to connect on social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter (Rothbard et al., 2022). These platforms tend to contain non-work-related information such that social media privies colleagues to information about the personal lives of one another (Rothbard et al., 2022). Social media also facilitates more interaction between colleagues about non-work-related activities such as commenting and supporting ("liking") each other's family and social lives. Thus, social media can enhance exchange of expressive resources and develop emotional closeness between colleagues and in turn, multiplex ties. That being said, it is important to note ties that operate in-person and on social media do not automatically become multiplex. Two colleagues can have an advice tie at work that extends on to the social media platform, LinkedIn. They may continue to use LinkedIn to exchange instrumental resources such as career advice. Since these two actors are tied by the same type of tie content and purpose (i.e., instrumental resources) in both the organization and social media context, their tie does not qualify as multiplex.

Furthermore, less is known about the benefits and consequences of multiplex ties that operate across organization and social media contexts. While research increasingly recognizes the benefits associated with multiplex ties (e.g., higher work performance and

leadership evaluations), these benefits are based on in-person multiplex ties (Casciaro & Lobo, 2008; Clark et al., 2022; Kilduff & Brass, 2010). Future research needs to examine whether similar benefits exist for multiplex ties outside of organizational boundaries. In particular, multiplex ties on social media may complicate work relations (Rothbard et al., 2022). On the one hand, social media may strengthen ties where colleagues have higher frequency of interaction outside of work and higher emotional intensity from getting to know each other's personal lives. However, on the other hand, social media users commonly report having negative interactions online (Fox & Moreland, 2015). This includes viewing annoying or offensive content posted by others, social comparison and jealousy from viewing other's content, and online interactions that lead to in-person relationship tensions (Fox & Moreland, 2015). Therefore, while social media facilitates greater multiplexity of ties between colleagues, they may also have negative interactions outside of work that can adversely affect their relations at work. To exemplify, colleagues may discover that they have dissimilar views disclosed on social media which leads them to form a negative tie and weaken their emotional closeness. Further, colleagues might break reciprocity norms by failing to like each other's posts on social media (Fox & Moreland, 2015). The adverse effects of these interactions on social media can extend to the workplace and reduce colleagues' willingness to help one another. Therefore, to realize the benefits of social media in facilitating multiplex ties, future research needs to explore the nuances of interactions online and the potential consequences to work relations.

Conclusion

By systematically reviewing and integrating management and social media literatures on network ties, we identified over 80 different network ties conceptualized and examined in the organizational and social media contexts. Our review also revealed many redundant or potentially contradicting types of ties as tie characteristics are often not clearly defined. Thus, we developed a typology to summarize and classify the distinctions between ties based on two dimensions: tie strength properties and tie content. In doing so, our typology provides clarity on the tie characteristics and embedded resources that define the qualities of ties and mechanisms of which social networks

provide value to careers. Although management research on network ties is a more mature body of literature than social media research, there are ripe opportunities to integrate knowledge from research on social media ties including the development of unilateral ties without reciprocity. We offered several fruitful future research directions as a way forward to integrate management and social media literatures and advance our understanding of network ties in a digitally connected world.

Conclusion and Future Research Directions

In this dissertation, three papers are presented with distinct contributions to better understand increased external mobility and the ubiquity of social media usage by working adults in the workplace. In this concluding chapter, a summary of each paper's findings, limitations, and future research directions are provided. Then, future directions stemming from the integration of knowledge developed across the three papers are discussed.

Future Research Directions from Each Paper

In the first paper, I conceptualize the JMM as an individual's favorable beliefs about the value of external job mobility to careers. While external mobility traditionally reflects instability in one's career, individuals are now increasingly viewing external mobility as a valuable component of careers (DiRenzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Raffiee & Byun, 2020). The JMM captures how implicit beliefs about external job mobility can vary such that individuals with stronger JMMs believe that external job mobility is valuable for developing human capital and signaling one's human capital to prospective employers. After developing a psychometrically valid measure of the JMM, the consequences of the JMM were examined. I found that raters with stronger JMMs are more likely to evaluate job candidates with track records of higher external mobility as more competent and employable. Yet, the findings also suggest that the positive effects of external job mobility on hiring recommendations may depend on whether the candidate has a history of career progression or a combination of external and internal job mobility. Thus, these findings suggest that mobility and career progression may send different and/or complementary signals to prospective employers regarding the candidate's abilities. As my conceptualization of the JMM captures only beliefs about external mobility, future research can examine whether the implicit beliefs about internal mobility are also evolving. Additionally, while this research shows the benefits of having a track record of external mobility, future research is needed to examine a potential "threshold" for having too much external job mobility in a career such that there are detrimental effects on one's hireability.

The second paper examines the adverse effects of employees' social media usage on work attitudes. Namely, employees' social media intensity is strongly associated with FOMO-*work* and in turn, negatively affects their job satisfaction, engagement, burnout, and enhances attraction to external opportunities. While management research generally examines social media as ESMs endorsed by the organization, this paper contributes to understanding employees' experience on social media more broadly in their lives and provides a psychological mechanism (i.e., FOMO-*work*) linking social media intensity to work outcomes. Furthermore, in advancing research on FOMO, this paper also parses the distinct effects of FOMO as a trait and state that is specific to the work context. However, there are limitations to this research that provide for future research opportunities. First, I did not examine potential boundary conditions on the effects of social media intensity on FOMO-*work*, as well as the consequences of FOMO-*work* on work outcomes. For example, certain individual differences may reduce or exacerbate the experience of FOMO-*work* and negative effects on work outcomes. Second, Study 1 was limited to cross-sectional field data and thus, I was not able to test the full theoretical model together. Therefore, future research can attempt to test the full model and consider additional boundary conditions.

Finally, the third paper presents a systematic review and synthesis of research on network ties in management and social media literatures. This work sheds light on how research on social network ties have evolved in both bodies of literatures and the sheer number of network ties conceptualized. By taking stock of network ties conceptualized across the organization and social media contexts, this paper connects two disparate bodies of research and identifies similar and unique tie characteristics in each context. My review found that many network ties are defined by the same characteristics which can produce redundancies in social network research. Further, prior research may confound the effects of strong and weak ties as different characteristics are used to define the strength of ties. Thus, I developed a typology to organize and synthesize the large number of network ties based on two key dimensions (i.e., tie strength properties and tie content). This typology helps future researchers to clarify the characteristics and value of the network ties under examination, as well as the mechanisms of network effects. Finally, several recommendations are provided to enrich future research on social

networks in the social media era including clearly indicating the tie characteristics under examination, developing greater understanding of reciprocity in ties, and examining multiplex ties that transcend organizational boundaries to the social media context.

Integrated Future Research Directions

In addition to the unique knowledge and future directions developed in each paper, there are integrated research implications from the three papers combined. Specifically, I propose two areas of integrated future directions: (1) the implications of evolving work experiences in the social media era and (2) the double-edged sword of social media usage. Together, these integrated future directions help to better understand employees' work experiences in the social media era.

Implications of evolving work experiences in the social media era

It is important for future research to study the implications of employees' evolving work experiences, which can be influenced by how work experiences are depicted on social media. Needless to say, the overrepresentation of positively framed experiences on social media may not represent the reality of work lives and can foster unrealistic ideals of work experiences. Both employers and individuals contribute to forming these work ideals on social media. Employers use social media to promote their best organizational features to attract prospective job candidates, as well as share the highlights (e.g., awards, achievements, events, etc.) of their employees and the organization. Further, individuals use social media to carefully curate their online profiles and social networks to display positive social experiences and work relations, including some developing "instagram-worthy" workplaces (Clark, 2018). Ultimately, these social media depictions of work experiences can influence employees' expectations of their employers and have implications on the overall employment relationship. Individuals may expect more positive or exciting work experiences that match those portrayed on social media. If the employment relationship does not fulfill employees' expectations, this could ultimately have negative consequences to employees' work attitudes, performance, and retention (Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2019). Therefore, more research is

needed on the consequences of how work experiences are portrayed on social media and how employees' expectations of work may be evolving in the social media era.

My research on the JMM (conceptualized in Paper 1) helps to understand the implications of how work experiences and in particular, experiences of external job mobility, are portrayed on social media. The JMM captures employees' favorable beliefs about the value of external job mobility to careers. As information receivers on social media, employees view predominantly positively framed work information. This can include information about other's experiences of external job mobility. This likely includes positive aspects of job and organizational changes such as, work perks provided by new employers, fun experiences at newcomer social events, and other's growing professional networks. Perhaps the challenges and risks associated with changing jobs may be lost or intentionally excluded in the social media depictions of job mobility. Thus, not only does social media provide greater exposure to one another's job changes, but also social media may falsely emphasize the positive aspects of changing jobs. As a result, individuals may expect smooth transitions and high returns from changing organizations. Taken together, the social media depictions of job mobility could contribute to the evolving and more favorable beliefs about external job mobility.

Moreover, the JMM helps to illuminate why individuals (as information contributors on social media) may desire to strategically portray a competitive and successful career on social media. Due to the competitive labor market, it is increasingly important for individuals to develop their own personal brand and work profile on social media, which can help to enhance employment opportunities and social networks (Gorbatov et al., 2019; Mazurek et al., 2020). Individuals with a strong JMM believe in the importance of developing and signaling one's own human capital. They believe that a track record of external movement is needed to build a sustainable career and can signal their abilities to prospective employers. Thus, considering the JMM in the social media era, individuals with stronger JMMs may be more likely to use their online profiles to curate a history of successful job movements and professional networks to enhance their attractiveness to prospective employers.

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Also, given that the JMM is a potential underlying motivation for using social media to craft attractive work lives online, future research can examine how the JMM is related to the negative consequences of social media usage such as FOMO-*work* (introduced and studied in Paper 2). On the one hand, individuals with stronger JMM may be more likely to use social media to promote their work experiences and in turn, experience FOMO-*work* from their social media usage. However, on the other hand, their strategic usage of social media could mitigate their FOMO-*work* as they are aware that others, like themselves, are using social media to promote oneself. Nonetheless, prior research suggests that despite being aware that experiences shared on social media may not reflect reality, individuals still use social media (both consciously and unconsciously) as a source of information for social comparisons (Chou & Edge, 2012). Thus, there may be interesting and competing mechanisms and boundary conditions as to how individuals with a strong JMM experience FOMO-*work* from their social media usage.

The double-edged sword of social media usage

Drawing on my research on employees' social media usage (Paper 2) and social networks (Paper 3), another area of future research opportunity is the double-edged sword of employees' social media presence on work and career outcomes. In other words, more research is needed to examine when social media usage can be beneficial (e.g., by developing social capital) or detrimental (e.g., psychologically taxing on employees) to work and career outcomes. In Paper 2, I examined how employees' social media usage can be detrimental to work attitudes and well-being by eliciting FOMO-*work*. Employees who have higher social media intensity are more likely to devalue their own work experience from constant exposure to others' work highlights on social media. However, research also argues the importance and value of using social media to craft one's personal brand, work profile, and professional network (Mazurek et al., 2020). Moreover, social media can facilitate the development of large and diverse networks that help to build one's social capital (Steinfield et al., 2008). Thus, this presents an opportunity to examine the dual and competing mechanisms of how employees' social media usage can be both beneficial and harmful to work and career outcomes.

Additionally, the specific network ties developed on social media may influence the dual mechanism of when social media usage is beneficial or harmful to work outcomes. In Paper 3, I presented diverse social network ties that can be formed on social media, yet weak ties are the most frequently examined ties in the social media context. Although prior research suggests large networks, especially composed of "weak ties", are beneficial to work outcomes (Granovetter, 1973), it is unclear whether and how weak ties on social media would influence the competing effects of social media usage on work outcomes. For instance, on the one hand, individuals have infrequent interaction and lower emotional intensity with weak ties (Perry-Smith, 2006), which means they are less likely to know about the true work experiences of weak ties and rely on social media for information about each other's work lives. This could elicit FOMO-*work* as weak ties on social media may present overly positive work experiences. On the other hand, due to infrequent interaction and minimal network overlap, weak ties can provide access to non-redundant resources such as novel information and job opportunities (Granovetter, 1973). This means weak ties can be beneficial to work and career outcomes by enhancing one's social capital. In sum, future research can advance knowledge on the consequences of social media usage by examining which network ties developed on social media are more likely to exacerbate or mitigate the beneficial and detrimental effects.

Overall, this dissertation advances management research in understanding the implications of increased digital connectivity of employees. My research unpacks the role of employees' social media usage in amplifying the perceived benefits of external job mobility and external job opportunities, and the development of social networks. Through mechanisms such as FOMO-*work* and social network ties, social media can largely influence employees' work experiences. While the papers in this dissertation respond to calls for new perspectives on job mobility, social media, and social networks, several integrated future research directions are also provided to further advance management theories in the era of social media.

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Appendix A.

Paper 1 List of Items

Boundaryless Mindset (Briscoe et al., 2006)

1. I seek job assignments that allow me to learn something new.
2. I would enjoy working on projects with people across many organizations.
3. I enjoy job assignments that require me to work outside of the organization.
4. I like tasks at work that require me to work beyond my own department.
5. I enjoy working with people outside of my organization.
6. I enjoy jobs that require me to interact with people in many divergent organizations.
7. I have sought opportunities in the past that allow me to work outside the organization.
8. I am energized in new experiences and situations.

Competence (Adapted from Fiske et al, 2002)

1. Competent
2. Confident
3. Capable
4. Efficient
5. Intelligent
6. Skillful

Interview Recommendation (Adapted from Higgins & Judge, 2004)

1. I would recommend extending a job interview to this applicant
2. Overall, I would evaluate this candidate positively

Job-hopping Attitudes (Khatri et al., 2001)

1. To me, switching jobs is kind of a fun.
2. I switch jobs because my colleagues do so.
3. I tend to change jobs for no apparent reasons.

Job Mobility Mindset

1. External job mobility increases my skill development.
2. External job mobility helps grow my network.
3. External job mobility allows me to gain new experiences.
4. External job mobility keeps things interesting in my career.
5. External job mobility makes my career more exciting.
6. External job mobility is a good indicator of my employability in the job market.

7. External job mobility is a good indicator of my adaptability to changes in the job market.
8. External job mobility is a good indicator of my competitiveness in the job market.
9. External job mobility is a good indicator of my large professional network.

Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al, 1983)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I do not like my job.
3. In general, I like working here.

Organizational Mobility Preference (Adapted from Briscoe et al., 2006)

1. I like the predictability that comes with working continuously for the same organization.
2. I would feel very lost if I couldn't work for my current organization.
3. I prefer to stay in a company I am familiar with rather than look for employment elsewhere.
4. If my organization provided lifetime employment, I would never desire to seek work in other organizations.
5. In my ideal career I would work for only one organization.

Perceived Employability (Adapted from Rothwell & Arnold, 2007)

1. The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organization.
2. I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.
3. I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organization even if they are quite different to what I do now.

Proactive Personality (Seibert et al., 2001a) and Bakker et al., (2012)

1. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
2. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
3. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
4. I excel at identifying opportunities.
5. I am always looking for better ways to do things.
6. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.

Appendix B.

Paper 2 List of Items

Emotional Burnout (Maslach & Jackson,1981)

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel burned out from my work.
3. I feel frustrated by my job.
4. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.
5. I feel used up at the end of the workday.

FOMO-*trait* (Przybylski et al., 2013).

1. I fear others have more rewarding experiences than me.
2. I fear my friends have more rewarding experiences than me.
3. I get worried when I find out my friends are having fun without me.
4. I get anxious when I don't know what my friends are up to.
5. It is important that I understand my friends "in jokes."
6. Sometimes, I wonder if I spend too much time keeping up with what is going on.
7. It bothers me when I miss an opportunity to meet up with friends.
8. When I have a good time it is important for me to share the details online (eg. updating status).
9. When I miss out on a planned get-together it bothers me.
10. When I go on vacation, I continue to keep tabs on what my friends are doing.

FOMO-*work* (Adapted from Przybylski et al., 2013)

1. I fear others have more rewarding **work** experiences than me.
2. I fear my friends have more rewarding **work** experiences than me.
3. I get worried my coworkers are having fun at **work** without me.
4. I get anxious when I don't know what my friends are up to at **work**.
5. It is important that I understand my friends "inside jokes" about **work.**
6. I wonder if I spend too much time keeping up with what is going on with others' **work.**
7. It bothers me when I miss a better **work** opportunity
8. When I have a good time at **work** it is important for me to share the details online (e.g., updating status on Facebook and LinkedIn, posting pictures on social media).
9. When I miss out on a **work** event, it bothers me.
10. When I go on vacation, I continue to keep tabs on what my friends are doing at **work**.

Job Engagement (Saks, 2006)

1. I really "throw" myself into my job.
2. Sometimes I am so into my job that I lose track of time.
3. This job is all consuming; I am totally into it.
4. I am highly engaged in this job.

Job Pursuit Intentions (Adapted from Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989)

1. I would respond positively to the recruiter.
2. I would request additional information about the organization.
3. I would sign up for an interview.

Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1983)

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I do not like my job.*
3. In general, I like working here.

Perceived Job Alternatives (Adapted from Steel & Griffeth, 1989)

1. I know of several external job alternatives that I could apply for.
2. I know I can get an alternative external job offer.
3. It would be easy for me to find an external job that pays as well as my present job.

Social Media Intensity (Adapted from Steinfield et al., 2008)

1. Social media is part of my everyday activity.
2. I am proud to tell people I'm on social media.
3. Social media has become part of my daily routine.
4. I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto social media for a while.
5. I feel I am part of the social media community.
6. About how many friends do you have on social media?
7. On average, approximately how many minutes per day have you spent on social media?

Task Significance (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006)

1. The results of my work are likely to significantly affect the lives of other people.
2. My job is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.
3. My job has a large impact on people outside the organization.

Appendix C.

Paper 3 List of Journals Included in Review of Management Literature

1. Academy of Management Annals
2. Academy of Management Journal
3. Academy of Management Review
4. Administrative Science Quarterly
5. American Journal of Sociology
6. American Sociological Review
7. Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior
8. Annual Review of Sociology
9. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice
10. Harvard Business Review
11. Human Relations
12. Human Resource Management
13. Human Resource Management Review
14. Journal of Applied Psychology
15. Journal of Business Ethics
16. Journal of Business Venturing
17. Journal of International Business Studies
18. Journal of Management
19. Journal of Management Studies
20. Journal of Organizational Behavior
21. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology
22. Journal of Vocational Behavior
23. Leadership Quarterly
24. Management Science
25. Organization Science
26. Organization Studies
27. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes
28. Personnel Psychology
29. Psychological Science
30. Research in Organizational Behavior
31. Sloan Management Review
32. Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal
33. Strategic Management Journal