WORKING IN A WORLD OF FREQUENT JOB CHANGE:
THE EFFECTS OF TRANSIENT MINDSET ON EMPLOYEE IDENTITY AND BEHAVIOR

by

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(Under the Direction of Jason Colquitt)

ABSTRACT

In this paper, I examine how changing workplace norms may influence employee identity and behavior. Specifically, I introduce the construct transient mindset, or the belief that it is detrimental for an employee to stay at one organization for an extended period of time. I theorize that transient mindset alters employees' "identity constellations," reducing the value they place in their organizational identities and, as a result, increasing the value they place in their leisure and family identities. Through these effects, I argue that transient mindset should reduce organizational identification, ultimately reducing voice and increasing networking. Furthermore, I argue that for people who perceive their organization to be prestigious, transient mindset will have a less negative relationship with organizational identity value. I test these predictions in both lab and field studies, finding mixed results for my hypotheses.

INDEX KEYWORDS: Identity, Careers, Identification, Voice, Networking

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

People are changing jobs more frequently than ever. A recent study conducted by LinkedIn suggested that job-hopping rates among college graduates have almost doubled over the last few decades. In the first five post-graduate years, people who graduated between 1986 and 1990 held an average of 1.6 jobs, while people who graduated between 2006 and 2010 held an average of 2.85 jobs (Berger, 2016). Similarly, in a 2016 report, Gallup revealed that 21% of Millennials reported changing jobs during the previous year—more than three times that of other generations (Gallup, 2016). The standards for staying at a job have also changed. Although conventional wisdom used to suggest that it was best to stay at one job for at least a year or two before pursuing other options, employers have become less averse to job candidates whose resumes indicate shorter periods of employment (Gallo, 2015). Popular press articles even go so far as to outline the reasons to change jobs often, suggesting that people change organizations every three to five years (Ryan, 2016).

Researchers have begun examining the effects of this fast-changing workplace. In the careers literature, the protean career perspective acknowledges that employees are in charge of their own career, rather than employers or external forces (Hall, 1976; Hall, Yip, & Doiron, 2018). The boundaryless career perspective recognizes a sort of "free agent" mentality, in which employees are independent from their organizations (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). On a more individual basis, the hobo syndrome characterizes people who have a frequent "itch" to change jobs (Ghiselli, 1974; Judge & Watanabe, 1995), while other research has focused on

people's tendencies to think about the future (e.g., Gjesme, 1983; Kooij, Kanfer, Betts, & Rudolph, 2018; Reilly, Souder, & Ranucci, 2016).

Although these perspectives acknowledge that the nature of the workplace has evolved in recent decades, they do not fully capture the mentality of modern employees. The changing nature of employment seems to have been accompanied by a psychological shift in how people view the workplace. Modern employees increasingly have a sense that working at one organization for an entire career may be harmful to their opportunities and career growth. In order to address this change in perspective, I introduce *transient mindset*—defined as the general belief that it may be detrimental to remain in one organization for an extended period of time. Transient mindset builds on the protean and boundaryless career models to capture the notion that employees may have beliefs about what generally advances or thwarts career growth or opportunities. The term "mindset" is used intentionally to reflect a construct that falls somewhere between "trait-like" and "state-like." Because it is shaped by beliefs about the working world during one's formative years, transient mindset should be more stable than attitudes about specific tasks, particular bosses, or a single organization.

Although employees with a transient mindset may differ from other employees in a number of respects, I am particularly interested in the effects of this mindset on issues of identity. I therefore use identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Golledge, & Scabini, 2006) to examine the impact of transient mindset on how employees manage their identity at work. I argue that transient mindset will influence the value employees place on the various elements that comprise their identity (i.e., their organization, family life, and leisure pursuits). Identity process theory argues that the value of identity elements is determined by whether they facilitate three motives—*continuity* (i.e., that the element provides a connection

between their past, present, and future), *distinctiveness* (i.e., that the element differentiates them from other people), and *self-esteem* (i.e., that the element encourages a positive self-view; Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006). In a person's "identity constellation," those identity elements that are most valuable—that most provide a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem—will shine more brightly. In contrast, those identity elements that are less valuable will shine more dimly.

Using identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006) and other relevant identity theorizing (e.g., Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008), I argue that transient mindset will influence a person's attitudes toward their organization and, in turn, their behaviors (see Figure 1). Specifically, I theorize that transient mindset will influence employees' identity constellation, lowering the value they place on their organizational identity element and subsequently elevating the value they place on their leisure and family identity elements. As a result, transient mindset should lower employees' *organizational identification*—the extent to which they self-define by the same characteristics they believe define their organization (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994).

I further theorize that this reduction in organizational identification will have behavioral consequences. Specifically, transient mindset should indirectly discourage *voice*—the discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, and options meant to improve organizational functioning (Morrison, 2011). Transient mindset should also indirectly encourage *networking*—proactive attempts to build and maintain informal relationships that may benefit one's career (Blickle, Witzki, & Schneider, 2009; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Kuwabara, Hildebrand, & Zou, 2018). Importantly, I also theorize that perceptions of one's organization can alter or shape these dynamics. Specifically, the negative relationship between transient mindset

and the value placed on one's organizational identity element should be moderated by *perceived organizational prestige*—the perception of how outsiders view one's employer (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Bartels, Pruyn, De Jong, & Joustra, 2007; Smidts, Pruyn, & Van Riel, 2001). In cases where the organization is viewed as more prestigious, the effects of transient mindset on organizational identity value should be neutralized. In cases where the organization is viewed as less prestigious, the effects of transient mindset should be amplified.

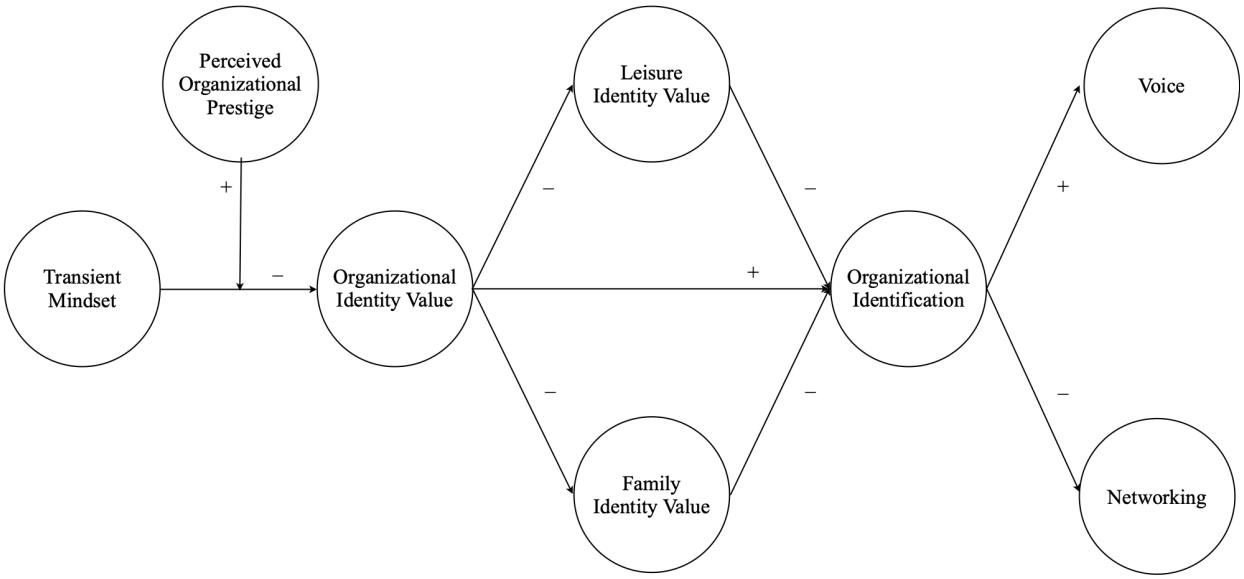

Figure 1. Theoretical Model

My work makes several contributions to theory and practice. First, I contribute to research on careers by introducing transient mindset, which may help provide a more complete picture of how the changing workplace impacts employee attitudes and experiences. Second, I use identity process theory to examine how feelings of impermanence may influence the value employees place on their various identity elements. This holistic approach allows me to examine the influence of transient mindset on not only organizational identity, but also on the other elements that are common stars in identity constellations—leisure and family. I also study these

relationships in both the laboratory and field—answering calls to go beyond the conceptual and qualitative bents in the broader identity literature (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016).

My work also makes several practical contributions. Popular press articles and self-help books about career advancement are prevalent and often suggest that changing jobs may be the best way to secure a promotion (e.g., Ryan, 2016). At the same time, research has acknowledged that turnover is expensive to organizations (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017), and that the best talent is often lured away to other opportunities (Trevor, 2001). My work suggests that transient mindset may be detrimental to organizations even if an employee stays at that organization, as less effort is channeled toward voice and more effort is channeled toward networking. Voice can benefit organizational productivity and effectiveness in a number of respects (Morrison, 2011), whereas networking may lay the groundwork for exit from the organization (Porter, Woo, & Campion, 2016). It is therefore important to understand the effects of transient mindset and begin to uncover how organizations can mitigate its influence.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONSTRUCT ARTICULATION

Transient mindset is a new construct in the organizational literature, and as such, there is not an established literature to review. However, there are certain constructs that relate to transient mindset, which I review in this section. First, I describe the literature on two relatively new career models—the protean and boundaryless career models. I then describe the hobo syndrome, followed by research on future time perspective and time horizons. Finally, I describe transient mindset and explain its relation to the reviewed constructs.

Protean and Boundaryless Career Models

The traditional career model viewed careers as largely grounded in one or two organizations and as progressing in somewhat linear phases (Levinson, 1978; Super, 1957). This traditional model describes careers as existing within fairly stable structures characterized by upward movement within an organization's structure for advancement (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). However, as a result of environmental and individual attitude changes, this traditional model has become less descriptive of the workplace experience. For example, certain economic factors of the 2007-2008 United States recession led to mass layoffs, organizational restructuring, or delayed retirement for older employees (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Psychological contracts between employers and employees also began to change (Sullivan, 1999), with employees focusing on learning and marketability in exchange for their performance (Hall et al., 2018)—a change which has resulted in decreased job security and loyalty (Sullivan, 1999). In addition, individuals began to make career changes in order to better align their work

with their own desires, taking a more proactive approach to their career development (Hall, 2004; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). In response to these changes, researchers began to focus on new models of the workplace: the protean career model and the boundaryless career model.

Protean Careers

The protean career is one in which the individual is in charge, rather than the organization or other external forces (Hall, 1976; Hall et al., 2018). This definition highlights the difference between the protean career and the traditional model—namely, the protean model focuses on the role of the individual in shaping their career whereas the traditional model emphasizes the role of the environment or other actors. Fittingly, then, the protean career orientation—an individual difference variable (Hall et al., 2018)—involves two key characteristics: a desire to be self-directed and a focus on intrinsic work values (Hall, 2002; Hall et al., 2018).

Studies have suggested that certain demographic characteristics may predict the protean career orientation, such as education, managerial experience, and age (Hall et al., 2018). Certain dispositions may also serve as antecedents. For example, research has suggested that proactive personality, openness to experience, and promotion focus are positively associated with this orientation (Briscoe, Hall, & DeMuth, 2006; Hofstetter & Rosenblatt, 2017), while prevention focus is negatively associated with it (Hofstetter & Rosenblatt, 2017). In general, however, research on antecedents of the protean career orientation has been limited (Hall et al., 2018).

The protean career orientation influences various workplace outcomes, largely involving career success and organizational commitment. For example, research has suggested that a protean career orientation may predict individuals' perceptions of their own career success (e.g., Herrmann, Hirschi, & Baruch, 2015), although research on objective measures of success is still limited (Hall et al., 2018). Additionally, the protean career orientation tends to have a positive

relationship with affective commitment (e.g., Baruch, 2014; Çakmak-Otluoğlu, 2012). Although the most common outcomes tend to involve commitment or career success, researchers have considered other outcomes as well. For example, Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, and Murphy (2012) found that a self-directed protean career attitude was negatively related to psychological well-being and positively related to performance. Research has also supported the notion of the "protean paradox"—that self-directed employees who focus on intrinsic values may actually have positive influences on the workgroup, with those employees serving as better organizational citizens (Hall et al., 2018).

Researchers have begun to consider the mechanisms through which a protean career orientation influences individual outcomes. Following their review of the literature, Hall and colleagues (2018) theorized that three processes motivate and enable individuals with strong protean career orientation to convert attitudes about their careers into career behaviors. The first is identity awareness, which describes the person's sense of values and personal identity. Identity awareness is rooted in the idea that individuals 'values influence their career decisions. Because the workplace increasingly features uncertainty and frequent change, individuals with a strong identity awareness may be better able to make decisions regarding their career. Second, adaptability describes a person's ability to change during tumultuous times. Researchers have proposed that the protean career orientation is related to self-learning, which is a facet of adaptability that is important for making career transitions (Hall & Mirvis, 1996). Finally, career agency describes a person's perceived control over their career. Career agency reflects acting on the identity awareness and adaptability. In other words, agency is what turns a protean career orientation into career behaviors such as engagement and proactive behaviors (Hall et al., 2018).

Boundaryless Careers

The boundaryless career fosters a mentality in which employees are independent from their organizations (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996)—representing a sort of" free agent" mentality (Feldman & Ng, 2007). These careers go beyond specific organizational memberships, comprised instead of experiences across jobs and organizations (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Eby, 2001). As a result, the boundaryless career involves ambiguity about organizational membership and job duties (Miner & Robinson, 1994). As described by Arthur and Rousseau (1996), there are different ways that a career may be boundaryless. For example, academics may find validation from sources like peer-reviewed journals—sources which are not their current employers. Likewise, business consultants may cross the boundaries of separate employers.

Although the boundaryless career attitude is typically studied with regard to physical mobility (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), researchers have started to note other forms of mobility. Specifically, researchers have noted that boundaryless careers are characterized by both physical (i.e., crossing organizational boundaries) and psychology mobility (i.e., employees' perceived capability to make transitions; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Briscoe et al. (2006) further theorized that the psychological mobility component may be broken down into two dimensions. The first, boundaryless mindset, conveys an employee's inclination or desire to work across organizational boundaries. The second, mobility preference, reflects a positive view of job change, or employees' desire to change organizations or stay with one organization for an extended period of time (Porter, Woo, & Tak, 2016). Thus, both boundaryless mindset and mobility preference describe a person's desires or preferences for how they do work.

There is some overlap between the protean and boundaryless career models, as both models involve some sort of perceived independence on the part of the employee. However,

researchers have argued that they are separate constructs (Briscoe et al., 2006). The difference lies in their focus: the protean career model focuses on intrinsic values and self-direction whereas the boundaryless career model focuses on mobility (Hall, 2002). As described by Briscoe and colleagues (2006), a person with a boundaryless mindset may not necessarily have a protean career orientation, and vice versa. A person may have protean career orientations, focusing on his/her values and making self-directed career decisions, but prefer not to cross organizational boundaries. Alternatively, a person may have a boundaryless mindset, embracing physical or psychological mobility in his/her career, but rely on a single organization for career development.

In an attempt to clarify the boundaryless construct, Sullivan and Arthur (2006) described physical and psychological mobility as continuums instead of either/or concepts, as researchers had previously suggested. As a result, they proposed a two-by-two conceptualization featuring four unnamed quadrants into which most employees fall. For example, a NASA engineer with highly specialized knowledge who enjoys the stability of his/her current job would fall in the quadrant characterized by low physical mobility and low psychological mobility. Alternatively, a person who perceives him/herself to be a respected academic, yet does not actually pursue other employment options, would fall in the quadrant characterized by low physical mobility and high psychological mobility. The authors further expanded the concept by discussing factors that may limit the boundaryless career. For example, a person who has more competencies may have more opportunities for physical or psychological mobility than a person who has fewer work competencies. Other factors such as gender, cultural differences, and individual differences may influence the degree of mobility a person experiences (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006).

Hobo Syndrome

Ghiselli (1974) described the hobo syndrome as a type of wanderlust in which people periodically have an urge to change jobs. This "itch" occurs regardless of job alternatives or other seemingly realistic motives (Judge & Watanabe, 1995). When people with the hobo syndrome feel dissatisfied or bored in their current jobs, they may decide to pursue other jobs that seem less stressful or more enjoyable (Hom et al., 2017). Researchers have begun to recognize people with hobo syndrome as their own segment of the workforce, and whose turnover behaviors are inadequately explained by normal turnover theories. Specifically, for these drifters, the itch to change jobs translates directly into turnover—a different process than the rational consideration and systematic search that most turnover models describe (Hom et al., 2017).

Although research has generally supported the notion that employees' prior absences tend to predict their future absences (e.g., Ivancevich, 1985; Keller, 1983), empirical research on the hobo syndrome itself is limited. The few studies that have examined the hobo syndrome tend to use event history analyses to test the influence of past quit behaviors on future quit behaviors (Becton, Carr, & Judge, 2011; Judge & Watanabe, 1995). Woo (2011) expanded this approach, characterizing hobo syndrome as involving not only common job movement behaviors (i.e., the number of times participants had voluntarily quit their jobs), but also positive attitudes about job movement (e.g., "I feel positive about changing jobs regularly"). The results of a latent class cluster analysis supported the notion that hobos form a distinct group in the workplace (Woo, 2011).

Because of the sparse research on this phenomenon, our understanding of its effects are limited. To date, researchers have worked to validate the hobo syndrome as an individual

tendency (Judge & Watanabe, 1995; Munasinghe & Sigman, 2004; Woo, 2011). Although most studies have operationalized hobo syndrome based on the number of voluntary quits a person has made during their career (e.g., Becton et al., 2011; Judge & Watanabe, 1995), Woo (2011) also used three items from Maertz and Campion's (2004) measure for value-based views of quitting (e.g., "quitting is bad and persistence is a virtue (reverse-scored)"). Becton and colleagues (2011) moved beyond validation to investigate boundary conditions, analyzing the moderating effect of job complexity on the relationship between past job mobility and voluntary turnover. However, despite the limited empirical research on the hobo syndrome, scholars continue to point to the construct in conceptual discussions (e.g., Boswell, Boudreau, & Tichy, 2005; Dickter, Roznowski, & Harrison, 1996).

Future Time Perspective

Kooij and colleagues (2018) defined a future time perspective as a concern for and consideration of the future. Time perspectives have five dimensions: 1) time orientation, or whether a person predominately focuses on the past, present, or future; 2) extension, or how far into the future a person visualizes; 3) continuity, or the degree to which a person perceives both the immediate and long-term consequences of an action; 4) density, or the number of goals a person aims to accomplish in the future; and 5) directionality, or the degree that a person perceives moving toward the future from the present (Kooij et al., 2018). Although a time perspective can involve the past, present, or future, I focus primarily on the future time perspective, which is most relevant to transient mindset.

Researchers tend to treat the future time perspective as a relatively stable individual difference. For example, Gjesme (1983) argued that the future time perspective is an individual difference that gradually develops across one's lifetime. In their meta-analysis, Kooij and

colleagues (2018) found an inverted-U relationship between age and future time perspective, suggesting that future time perspective tends to increase as people aged in their younger years, but begins to decrease as people reach an older age. Some authors, however, have described the future time perspective as a malleable cognitive structure, defining it as a general concern and consideration of the future (Kooij et al., 2018; Seijts, 1998). However, most studies continue to use measures that assess future time perspective as a trait (Kooij et al., 2018).

The future time perspective appears to be associated with several demographic characteristics and personality traits. Meta-analytic results suggest that the future time perspective is positively correlated with socioeconomic status, positive affectivity, locus of control, self-efficacy, and self-esteem (Kooij et al., 2018). Other antecedents include several of the Big Five personality traits—namely, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. However, researchers have also recognized that life situations may influence a person's perception of time, such as illness or economic conditions (Carstensen & Fredrickson, 1998; Fung, Carstensen, & Lutz, 1999). This research seems to support the notion that a future time perspective is not necessarily static, but may vary according to a person's life experiences.

Overall, research suggests that a future time perspective may have positive implications for individual outcomes, both within and outside the workplace. In their meta-analysis, Kooij and colleagues (2018) found that the future time perspective was positively related to life satisfaction, subjective health, and health-related behaviors such as physical exercise, and negatively related to risk-taking behaviors and substance use. Other research has indicated that a future time perspective may help with coping processes. For example, Hamilton, Connolly, Liu, Stange, Abramson, and Alloy (2015) found that a future time perspective provided a buffering

effect on the negative emotional consequences of emotional abuse in adolescents. Research has also begun to consider the influence a future time perspective may have on work behaviors and attitudes. Seijts (1998) theorized that the future time perspective may have important implications for work motivation. In an empirical study, Gupta, Hershey, and Gaur (2012) found that a future time orientation was negatively related to procrastination. More recently, Kooij, Tims, and Akkermans (2017) found a positive effect of future time perspective on work engagement and performance via increased job crafting.

Time Horizons

It is also important to consider research on time horizons—a term typically used to describe the length of time before some anticipated ending (e.g., Carstensen, 2006; Okhuysen, Galinsky, and Uptigrove, 2003). In management research, this construct is commonly associated with the realization of outcomes in negotiations and managerial decision making. For example, Okhuysen et al. (2003) manipulated the expected time before outcome realization to determine the effect on negotiations. The results suggested that participants who were told that the negotiated agreement would go into effect in one year had more efficient negotiations than those whose agreements would go into effect in two weeks. In strategic management, scholars study the effects of temporal constructs such as investment horizons, which describe the expectations a manager has about timing of returns (Reilly et al., 2016). Similarly, short horizons describe decisions that influence short-term outcomes at the cost of long-term outcomes, while long horizons describe decisions that influence long-term outcomes at the cost of short-term outcomes (see Reilly et al., 2016 for a review).

More broadly, researchers conceptualize time horizons in a variety of ways. Some research considers time horizons in regard to a person's sense of time remaining in life. Although

sometimes operationalized as participant age (e.g., Hepper, Wildschut, Sedikides, Robertson, & Routledge, in press), sense of remaining time tends to become more important than chronological age as people grow older (Carstensen, 2006). As theorized by Carstensen (2006), this effect may be due to the inherent link between goal-directed behaviors and perceptions of future time. Other researchers conceptualize time horizon in a manner that overlaps with extension—one of the time perspective dimensions (Kooij et al., 2018). For example, in a study of heroin addicts, Petry, Bickel, and Arnett (1998) investigated participants' tendency to think far into the future. The authors found that heroin addicts envisioned less distant futures than those in the control condition, suggesting that this indicated a shortened time horizon.

Research on social dilemmas also features time horizons. Social dilemmas occur when there is a clash between short-term individual interests and long-term collective interests (Komorita & Parks, 1994). Joireman, Kamdar, Daniels, and Duell (2006) argued that citizenship behaviors are a form of social dilemma, and considered the influence of employees' time horizons on their decision to engage in these behaviors. Because citizenship behaviors tend to be costly for the employee in the short term, the authors theorized that individuals with a short time horizon within the organization would be less likely than individuals with long time horizons to engage in citizenship behaviors—a prediction supported by their study.

Transient Mindset

I focus on the changing workplace highlighted by the protean and boundaryless career models to highlight the temporary frame of mind that many employees develop. Specifically, I define *transient mindset* as the general belief that it is detrimental for employees to remain in one organization for an extended period of time. This construct incorporates several elements of the those described above. First, transient mindset taps into the changing workplace and the attitudes

that accompany the shift away from the more traditional career model. As described by the protean and boundaryless career models, individuals have begun to view themselves as independent from their organization, taking more personal initiative for their career to focus on their own values and viewing work with a willingness to move. Although there is some similarity between mobility preference and transient mindset, mobility preference describes an employee's preference to change jobs somewhat frequently—capturing notions such as a preference to stay in a familiar company rather than looking for different employment (Porter et al., 2016). Instead, transient mindset describes employees' views about what may harm one's career, in a more general sense—a belief that staying at one place for too long can hinder an employee's career advancement.

Second, although transient mindset has some similarity to the "itch" to change jobs that characterizes the hobo syndrome, it represents a belief that can be held even in the absence of that itch. Transient mindset is an acknowledgement of the potential career hindrance that may occur if a person stays in an organization for too long, even in the absence of a tendency to change jobs frequently. Third, transient mindset has elements of the future time perspective, as thoughts about the behaviors that facilitate or thwart career growth bring with them an anticipation of what might come next. Finally, transient mindset features some overlap with research on time horizons. The awareness that organizational memberships should come to an end sooner or later represents a longer time horizon. Transient mindset focuses that longer time horizon more specifically on membership with a given organization.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

In this chapter, I develop theory on the implications of transient mindset. First, I use identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006) to argue that employees with a transient mindset place less value on their organizational identity. Instead, people with a transient mindset are likely to value identities in other domains—specifically, leisure and family identities. Second, I draw from relevant identity theorizing to consider how these identity values will influence organizational identification. Third, I explain how transient mindset may influence employee voice and networking through the value of identity elements and subsequent organizational identification. Finally, I explain how perceived organizational prestige may mitigate the negative implications of transient mindset by neutralizing the negative effect on organizational identity value.

Identities are composed of various aspects, or identity elements (Vignoles et al., 2006). Researchers have recognized several identity elements (Jackson, 1981; Schwartz, 2001), including organizational (e.g., Ashcraft, 2013), family (e.g., Thoits, 1983), and leisure identities (e.g., Thoits, 2013; Snir & Harpaz, 2002). Drawing on the metaphor of a constellation—a pattern composed of multiple stars that each shine at a different level of brightness—identity process theory suggests that the identity constellation may look different for each employee (Breakwell, 1968; Vignoles et al., 2006). Although most people have organizational, leisure, and family identities, each employee's constellation will feature elements that shine more brightly than others (Stryker, 1968).

According to identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006), variation in identity constellations occurs because three identity motives guide individuals toward or away from different identity elements. Specifically, people are motivated to protect feelings of continuity (i.e., that there is a connection between their past, present, and future), distinctiveness (i.e., that they are distinguished from other people), and self-esteem (i.e., that they view themselves positively; Breakwell, 1986). Identity elements that foster these motives should be viewed as more central to a person's sense of self, while elements that hinder these motives should be viewed as less central (Vignoles et al., 2006).

I use identity process theory to argue that employees with a transient mindset should place less value on their organizational identities for two reasons. First, people with a transient mindset may view their current employers as impermanent. The belief that it may be detrimental for people to stay in one organization for an extended period of time conveys a sense of perceived mobility—that sooner or later, a person should work for a different organization. To a person with a transient mindset, the organizational identity may seem likely to change.

Second, because people with a transient mindset view somewhat frequent job change as good, their organizational identity should be less salient in their thoughts. Researchers have recognized that individuals view some identities as more prominent or important than others (Callero, 1985; Stryker, 1968; Thoits, 1992). Consider, for example, two people who work in marketing at the Walmart headquarters—one with a transient mindset and one without. The person without a transient mindset may spend time thinking about his identity as a Walmart employee. When thinking about who he is, "Walmart employee" may quickly come to mind, and various environments may encourage him to enact this identity, even in non-work settings. Contrast this to the person with a transient mindset. If semi-frequent organization change is

beneficial, why would she invest time thinking about her identity as a Walmart employee? It seems unlikely that she would be quick to think about this identity in various settings.

Because transient mindset makes employers seem impermanent and less salient in the mind of employees, this mindset should hinder the continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem identity motives (Breakwell, 1986). Transient mindset suggests there should be a different employer at some point in the future, and as such, the organizational identity should not provide continuity between the past, present, and future—especially if a person does not often think about that identity. Because the organizational identity should change in the not-too-distant future, and because they should attend less to this identity element, employees with a transient mindset should be unlikely to view their organizational identity as a source of distinctiveness (Lynn & Snyder, 2002). The impermanence and lack of salience of the organizational identity may also limit the esteem that this identity provides to individuals (Callero, 1985). For this reason, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Transient mindset is negatively related to organizational identity value.

Importantly, the negative implications of transient mindset for organizational identity need not be a fait accompli. There may be ways for organizations to take proactive steps to reduce the problems associated with transient mindset. More specifically, aspects of the organization may influence the relationship between transient mindset and the value afforded to the organizational identity element. Specifically, research has acknowledged the importance of perceived organizational prestige (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Bartels et al., 2007; Smidts et al., 2001). Identity scholars have theorized that perceived organizational prestige may improve employees' views of their organization. For example, Dutton et al. (1994) found that external

construals of organizational prestige may encourage employees to connect with their organization's values. Other findings have suggested that perceived organizational prestige may mitigate the negative relationship between employee feelings of over-qualification and life satisfaction (Gkorezis, Erdogan, Xanthopoulou, & Bellou, 2019).

Employees with a transient mindset who do not think that outsiders hold their organization in high esteem should continue to see their current organizational membership as somewhat temporary, for the reasons articulated in Hypothesis 1. Because they are aware that their organizational membership should change in the near future, the identity should provide little continuity, distinctiveness, or self-esteem value for them. Indeed, such a response should be particularly likely when the organization lacks prestige. After all, an organization that is not prestigious has little esteem value, and offers fewer opportunities to create a sense of distinctiveness.

What about when employees with a transient mindset work in organizations that are perceived to be prestigious in the eyes of outsiders? In those circumstances, employees may assume that they will continue to maintain a psychological connection to the valued organization even after leaving it. For example, an alum of McKinsey may vividly display that former affiliation on online profiles or when giving remarks about their employment biography. Such continued connections represent what Klein, Brinsfield, Cooper, and Malloy (2017) termed "quondam commitments"—salient connections that employees no longer have. Evoking such connections gives employees additional opportunities to "bask in reflected glory" (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976), even after their organizational membership has ended. In this way, organizational membership can provide distinctiveness and self-esteem even for employees with a transient mindset. I therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: The negative relationship between transient mindset and organizational identity value is moderated by perceived organizational prestige, such that the relationship is less negative for employees at a prestigious organization and more negative for employees at a non-prestigious organization.

If the value of an organizational identity is low, then what will people with a transient mindset value? Research on identity construction and sensemaking suggests that people have a desire to define who they are and how they fit within their environment (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Ashforth et al., 2008). Researchers recognize that employees may have multiple identities that make up their global sense of self (e.g., Ashforth, 2001; Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010; Ramarajan, 2014)—identities such as trombone player or parent. Furthermore, identities are organized hierarchically, where the most prominent identities are positioned at the top and less prominent identities are positioned at the bottom (Callero, 1985; Stryker, 1968; Thoits, 1992).

According to Breakwell (1986), when one identity element is deemed less valuable, other elements should rise to take its place. At its core, identity process theory states that need-like identity motives guide individuals away from some identity elements and toward others (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011; Vignoles et al., 2006). Identity motives cause people to strive toward elements that fulfill motives and try to downplay or avoid elements that thwart motives (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011). For this reason, when one identity element does not provide a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, or self-esteem, people should turn to other identity elements that do. Thus, because transient mindset should reduce the value of organizational identity, it should encourage other identity elements to shine more brightly in the identity constellation. To that end, I focus on two other identity elements: leisure and family.

In response to the lack of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem provided by the organizational identity element, people may instead turn to their leisure identity. Selecting and participating in leisure—or the psychologically pleasant activities a person chooses to perform in their free-time (Kaplan, 1975)—is one way that people may affirm their sense of self (Haggard & Williams, 1992; Kelly, 1983). Leisure activities can occur at different levels, ranging from serious, such as volunteering or participating in triathlons, to casual, such as sitting at a football game or watching a movie (Stebbins, 1982). Serious leisure can become an identifying force in life (Stebbins, 1982). For example, people often talk about their hobbies when describing who they are. Even casual leisure can be a source of identity, however. A person who thinks of himself as a foodie may follow social media accounts about esteemed restaurants and enjoy discovering local restaurants, with his love of cuisine being a frequent topic of conversation with friends and colleagues.

A lack of organizational identity value should encourage people to value their leisure identity for two reasons. First, leisure identity can be long-term (Super, 1980). A former competitive tennis player may still love to play later in life. A cinephile may have formed his interest in movies as a child when he accompanied his parents to the theater. That long-term nature may exist because many leisure activities take considerable resource investment, including time and money (Suneson & Stebbins, 2020). For example, a home improvement enthusiast may sink years into projects around her house that never add any value to the property. Even when life gets busy and people are unable to keep up with their leisure activities, they may still find those activities to be a source of identity—something to which they look forward to returning.

Second, leisure identity should be something that employees think about often, as it may be triggered by situational primes (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002). A recreational pilot may think about his hobby when a plane flies overhead. A painter may imagine the brushstrokes she would use to paint a particularly scenic view. Furthermore, people with hobbies typically pursue them in their free time—after work, on the weekends, or on holidays—and may be quick to describe themselves as a pilot or painter to others. Because people find leisure activities to be interesting or enjoyable (Stebbins, 1982), they should be eager to enact their leisure identity and may display leisure symbols such as bumperstickers or t-shirts.

When organizational identity value is low, employees should turn to their leisure identities to facilitate feelings of continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011)—motives which leisure identity may be especially suited to fulfill. Many leisure activities involve skills that time take to develop, and the hobbies people begin in their youth may continue to be a source of enjoyment later in life. As such, leisure activities may provide individuals with a sense of continuity. Leisure activities may give their practitioners a sense of distinctiveness from others, serving as outlets for creativity and self-expression that they are excited to share (Whiting & Hannam, 2015). The time and effort required to master a leisure activity, and the inherent enjoyment a person gets from engaging in it, means that successful performance should boost self-esteem (Callero, 1985). Upon reducing the value placed in the organizational identity element, the transient mindset should encourage the value people place in their leisure identity element. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3a: Organizational identity value is negatively related to leisure identity value.

The family identity element may also shine more brightly for people who place little value in their organizational identity element. Family identity occurs when people internalize the expectations or values that are associated with their family roles (Ng & Feldman, 2008; Lobel & St. Clair, 1992)—roles such as spouse, parent, or child (Burke, 2006; Tsushima & Burke, 1999; Willson, Shuey, & Elder, 2003). These family roles are an important part of many people's lives, and identity loss in the family domain, such as losing a parent or getting divorced, is typically very painful (Neimeyer, Holland, Currier, & Mehta, 2008). Accordingly, changes to family identity can require extensive identity adaptation (Ladge, Clair, & Greenberg, 2012). Research on work-family conflict emphasizes the tensions that may exist between the two domains (e.g., Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), and many employees juggle the transition from work to home and vice versa on a daily basis (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000).

When the organizational identity element does not fulfill the continuity, distinctiveness, or self-esteem motives, a person may turn toward the family identity element for two reasons. First, family identity is generally long-lasting. Although family roles change over a lifetime, each family role typically lasts for many years (Super, 1980). A woman may be a daughter well into her adult years, and a man may be a husband for several decades. Thus, the family makeup generally stays the same during the course of a person's career even when aspects of a person's work life change. For example, people may take their families with them when they relocate for work (e.g., Lazarova, Westman, & Shaffer, 2010). Furthermore, people generally continue to hold the same family roles of parent, spouse, and/or child as changes in their work career occur, such as returning to school or receiving a promotion.

Second, family identity should be particularly salient to employees. In recent decades, research and organizations have paid increasing attention to family supportive workplace

practices (e.g., Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995)—a trend that emphasizes the struggle working parents frequently face as they balance work and home lives. In everyday conversations, a person's coworker may ask about their spouse or children to hear the latest update on their activities. Even trips to the grocery store may trigger thoughts of a person's family role; the sound of children laughing or crying may remind people of their children at home, and the sight of an elderly woman putting groceries in her car may inspire people to visit their aging parents.

The enduring and salient nature of family identity should facilitate continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006). Because family identity may be triggered by a variety of situations across time, it should provide a sense of continuity. Family identity should also be a source of distinctiveness, with each person's family identity looking slightly different. Talking to coworkers about a child's latest achievements may make a mother feel like she has done a good job of parenting, and that role performance may provide a sense of self-esteem (Callero, 1985). For this reason, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3b: Organizational identity value is negatively related to family identity value.

As theorized above, transient mindset should reduce the extent to which organizational identity fulfills identity motives of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem. When one identity element does not fulfill identity motives, people turn to other identity elements that do (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011). For this reason, by reducing organizational identity value, transient mindset it should encourage employees to then turn to other parts of their life—specifically, their leisure and family identities. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4: Transient mindset has a positive indirect effect on (a) leisure identity value and (b) family identity value through organizational identity value.

Transient Mindset and Organizational Identification

Organizational identification occurs when employees view their organization's principles as self-defining (Ashforth et al., 2008)—when their self-concept consists of attributes that are part of the perceived organizational identity (Dutton et al., 1994). At its core, organizational identification includes not only cognition, but also affect, as members who identify with their organization want to feel positively about that membership (Ashforth, 2001; Ashforth et al., 2008). Typically, employees who identify with their organization accept certain values, goals, beliefs, stereotypic traits, and knowledge, skills, and abilities as their own—things that make up the content of that identity (Ashforth et al., 2008). For example, a person who works for Google may think, "I, as a Googler, am creative and inventive."

I argue that people with a transient mindset should be less likely to identify with their organization because they see their organizational identity as less valuable. According to Tajfel (1982), two things are necessary for identification to occur: (1) a person must be aware of a group membership, and (2) the person must view that group membership as valuable. Transient mindset is unlikely to impact the awareness component—employees go to work every day, get regular paychecks signed by their employer, and may even have uniforms associated with their organization. As such, people should be aware of their organizational membership, regardless of how they believe a career should progress.

However, transient mindset should reduce the value people find in their organizational identity because that element does not provide a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, or self-esteem (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006). People who do not value their organizational

membership are unlikely to view it as self-defining or important, and they should have a weaker affective connection. They should be unlikely to accept their organization's values or beliefs as their own, and may exhibit fewer stereotypic traits. For this reason, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 5: Organizational identity value is positively related to organizational identification.

Transient mindset should also hinder organizational identification because it causes other identity elements to shine more brightly than the organizational identity element. Because identity motives are need-like, people have a natural desire to focus on identities that convey a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011). People who place a particular emphasis on leisure pursuits or family may see other identities, such as work, as a means to an end—a way to facilitate their focus on the elements that they value. For example, an avid runner who loves running marathons may see her work as the way to finance these trips. A father who wants to send his kids to private school may think of his job as the way to achieve that educational goal.

Scholars have also noted that identity elements differ in how frequently they are activated (Ashforth, 2001), such that important identities are consistently activated across a number of situations and unimportant identities are activated less frequently (Ramarajan, 2014). Some identities' salience will dissipate as soon as the context disappears, while others are more persistent in a person's thoughts (Ashforth et al., 2008; Rousseau, 1998). Moreover, people are not necessarily content to let situations determine which identity is salient (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Instead, they may say or do things that change situations so that a more meaningful identity fits the context.

Furthermore, because people organize identity elements hierarchically (Callero, 1985; Stryker, 1968; Thoits, 1992), they should invest in the identities that are most valuable (Thoits, 1991). In other words, people who value their non-organizational identities should put their time and effort into those areas of life. Valued identities should take precedence over other identities (Callero, 1985) and may "crowd out" those that are less valued. For example, a runner may be unwilling to interrupt her morning running routine to participate in a conference call, and a father may be unwilling to work holidays at the expense of spending time with his kids.

Taken together, people who value their non-organizational identities may work hard at their jobs—but not necessarily for the sake of the organization. Instead, they work because it is a way to pursue their valued obligations. Those identities—leisure or family—should be consistently salient (Ramarajan, 2014), leaving little room for organizational identity. When they think about the answer to "who am I?" the important identities will overshadow the unimportant identities. The things that inspire their sense of self, and that provide values and beliefs that align with their own, are unlikely to come from the organization. For this reason, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6a: Leisure identity value is negatively related to organizational identification.

Hypothesis 6b: Family identity value is negatively related to organizational identification.

In summary, transient mindset should reduce organizational identification because it alters the identity elements that shine most brightly in a person's identity constellation. Specifically, by reducing the value people place in their organizational identities, transient mindset encourages people to turn toward their leisure or family identities. As a result, it is

unlikely that their values and beliefs come from their organization. Thus, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 7: Transient mindset has a negative indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value.

Hypothesis 8a: Transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value and leisure identity value.

Hypothesis 8b: Transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value and family identity value.

Organizational Identification and Behavior

Researchers have found that identification with an entity is positively related to behaviors that support that entity (Ashforth et al., 2008). People who share values and beliefs with their organization, and who see their membership as self-defining and important, view themselves as having a sort of oneness with that organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Employees with high identification feel that outside criticism of their organization reflects negatively upon themselves. They also feel ownership of organizational success, and they care about helping its image (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). For these reasons, people who identify with their organization are likely to engage in behaviors that promote its wellbeing.

One way employees may support their organization is through voice. Employee voice is defined as discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, and opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve the functioning of the organization (Morrison, 2011). Voice is uniquely relevant to the expression of identity, as the content of voice links the employee's ideas to the organization's mission. Importantly, voice has a proactive element to it (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and researchers presume that the major reason people engage

in voice is the desire to make some positive difference for the collective (Morrison, 2011). For people who identify with their organization, voice may be one way that they attempt to contribute to its well-being.

When people do not identify with their organizations, they should be less inclined to voice their ideas or concerns. Employees who perceive their organization and its members as "they" instead of "we" should be less invested in the organization, and their desire to promote positive change should be lower. Moreover, researchers have shown that even invested employees often fear speaking up due to potential retribution (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Because employees who do not identify with their organization already seem unlikely to get involved in contentious issues, fear of potential retribution should make them even less likely to risk such efforts. For this reason, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 9: Organizational identification is positively related to voice.

Organizational identification may also strengthen people's psychological ties to their organization—how open they are changing employers. People who identify with an organization may feel that they personify that entity (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). They feel a psychological attachment to their organization that goes beyond interpersonal relationships to create a feeling of loyalty to the organization itself (Mael & Ashforth, 1995). It involves not only value congruence between people and their organization, but also a connection between how the people define themselves and how they define their organization (Dutton et al., 1994). For people who feel such a deep connection to their organization, the idea of pursuing other employment opportunities should be unappealing.

On the other hand, people who lack this strong connection to their organization may want to "keep their options open." One way that they may do so is through networking—proactive

attempts to build and maintain informal relationships that may benefit a person's career or professional goals (Blickle et al., 2009; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Kuwabara et al., 2018). Research has shown that networking may not only help people find job opportunities during periods of unemployment (Wanberg, Kanfer, & Banas, 2000), but may also promote career success and salary growth for current employees (Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Wolff & Moser, 2009). Networking can also provide employees with a sense of marketability and career mobility (Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Wolff & Moser, 2010). Thus, networking can be an effective way to broaden employment options.

For people who do not identify strongly with their organizations, networking may be a logical way to keep their options open. The lack of organizational identification may encourage employees to join professional associations, go to social functions with people from different organizations, or stay in touch with former colleagues—each of which may open the door to a future employment opportunity. To the degree that this is so, their work-related energies are not being devoted to improving the organization, but instead to improving their career prospects. I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 10: Organizational identification is negatively related to networking.

In summary, transient mindset should affect employee behavior indirectly, altering the value they place in their organizational, leisure, and family identity elements and thus reducing their organizational identification. For its part, organizational identification should have behavioral consequences, in the form of voice and networking. Specifically, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 11a: Transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on voice through organizational identity value and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 11b: Transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on voice through organizational identity value, leisure identity value, and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 11c: Transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on voice through organizational identity value, family identity value, and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 12a: Transient mindset has a positive serial indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 12b: Transient mindset has a positive serial indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value, leisure identity value, and organizational identification.

Hypothesis 12c: Transient mindset has a positive serial indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value, family identity value, and organizational identification.

CHAPTER 4

METHODS

I tested my model using both experimental and field designs, in order to balance internal and external validity. For the experimental portion, I utilized the experimental-causal-chain approach described by Spencer, Zanna, and Fong (2005). This approach allows researchers to test indirect effects by examining each of their component stages in a separate study. Accordingly, I conducted four lab studies. In Study 1a, I used a vignette to manipulate transient mindset and perceived organizational prestige to test their effects on organizational identity value. In Study 1b, I used a vignette to manipulate the value of organizational identity to test its effect on leisure and family identity values. In Study 1c, I used a vignette to manipulate organizational, leisure, and family identity values to test their effects on organizational identification. Finally, in Study 1d, I used a vignette to manipulate organizational identification to test its effect on voice and networking intentions. For the field portion, I used a four-wave, two-source design with waves separated by two weeks and both self- and coworker-reports. Study 2 therefore tests the entirety of the model in Figure 1.

STUDY 1A: METHOD

In Study 1a, I examine the first linkages in my model to test Hypotheses 1 and 2. Specifically, I manipulate transient mindset and perceived organizational prestige to test their effects on organizational identity value.

Sample

I recruited 249 participants from Prolific Academic, an online database that researchers have found to provide high-quality data (Peer, Brandimarte, Samat, & Acquisti, 2017) and which has been used in a number of management studies (e.g., Carton & Lucas, 2018). To be eligible for participation, workers were required to be full-time employees (working at least 30 hours a week) who were at least 18-years-old and lived in the United States. Participants were paid $2.50 for what was advertised to be a 15-minute time commitment.

Manipulations

In Study 1a, I used a 2 (high/low transient mindset) x 2 (high/low perceived organizational prestige) design. Participants first saw the manipulation for perceived organizational prestige, immediately followed by the transient mindset manipulation. Participants in the [**high**/*low*] perceived organizational prestige condition saw the following text:

> You are an employee at a large organization. People around you [**usually**/*usually do not*] recognize the name of your organization, and it [**tends**/*does not tend*] to be highly regarded by outside people. It is [**typically**/*not typically*] thought of as a pleasant place to work, and family and friends [**seem**/*do not seem*] to have a very positive attitude toward your organization.

Next, people in the [**high**/*low*] transient mindset condition saw the following text:

> You [**tend to**/*don't usually*] think it's bad for someone to stay in the same company for a long time. In your opinion, it [**seems**/*doesn't seem*] like staying in one company for very long would harm an employee's career or hinder their career opportunities. Overall, you [**think**/*don't think*] it's detrimental for someone to stay in the same company for a prolonged period of time.

I used various screening methods to ensure the quality of my data. First, I used items modeled after Meade and Craig (2012) to check that participants were paying attention (e.g., "Please select 'strongly agree'"). I excluded 7 participants for missing attention check items. Additionally, I included questions at the end of the study which asked participants to rate the quality of data they provided (Meade & Craig, 2012). I excluded 3 participants for indicating that they were distracted, did not exert much effort, or provided low quality data. As a result of those screening procedures, I had a final sample size of 239 employees (96% of the 249 participants recruited). Participants had an average age of 34.27 years old (SD = 8.64) and an average tenure of 5.33 years at their organization (SD = 5.35). Fifty-two percent of participants were male and 47% were female, with the remainder reporting other for gender. Seventy-four percent were Caucasian, 7% were African American, 12% were Asian, and 6% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remainder reporting other or mixed ethnicity.

Manipulation Checks

All items were assessed using 5-point Likert scales (1 = "*Strongly Disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly Agree*").

Transient mindset. I generated and content-validated items to measure transient mindset using the approach outlined by Hinkin and Tracey (1999). This approach assesses the extent to which items in a scale correspond to the construct's definition, and whether the items correspond to that definition more than the definitions of other orbiting constructs. Specifically, I used the guidelines provided by Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, and Hill (2019), including the norms they created based on analyzing measures from top management journals. For this purpose, I recruited 125 participants from Amazon's *Mechanical Turk* (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014).

The norms established by Colquitt and colleagues (2019) include an index for both definitional correspondence, *htc*, and definitional distinctiveness, *htd.* To assess *htc*, participants were provided with the transient mindset definition in bold and were asked to rate the transient mindset items using a scale where 1 = *item does an* ***EXTREMELY BAD*** *job of measuring the* ***bolded*** *concept provided above* to 7 = *item does an* ***EXTREMELY GOOD*** *job of measuring the* ***bolded*** *concept provided above.* The *htc* statistic, which is calculated by averaging the ratings of the scale items and then adjusting for the number of anchors, would have a value of 1.00 if each participant rated all items at the maximum value. My data produced an *htc* of .88, which is considered "strong" by Colquitt et al.'s (2019) standards.

Htd is computed based on the extent to which participants indicate each transient mindset item corresponds to definitions of orbiting constructs. For this comparison, Colquitt and colleagues (2019) recommended that researchers select constructs that have the same referent, are generally considered to be at the same stage of "causal flow," and which do not have a "part whole" relationship with the focal construct. For those reasons, I provided participants with the definitions for protean career orientation ("approaching one's work with self-direction in the pursuit of psychological success and the adherence to personal standards or values when making choices rather than to the expectations of others"; Hall, 2002; Porter et al., 2016b) and boundaryless career attitude ("directing one's career by using different levels of physical and psychological mobility"; Porter et al., 2016b; Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). My data produced an *htd* of .45, which is considered "very strong" by Colquitt et al.'s (2019) standards. In Table 1, I list the resulting items for transient mindset.

Table 1. Transient Mindset Items Assessed for Content Validity

Transient Mindset Items
1. In my opinion, it's detrimental for someone to work for the same company for an extended period of time.
2. I don't think that someone should stay at the same company for very long.
3. It seems like it would be harmful to an employee's career to stay in the same company for a prolonged period of time.
4. I find it hindering for someone to work in their company for a long time.
5. To me, it's concerning to learn that someone has worked at one company for a big chunk of time.

To test the factor structure and examine the nomological network, I conducted an additional construct validation study using 236 participants from Amazon's *Mechanical Turk*. To examine potential antecedents of transient mindset, I asked participants to provide their age—expecting a higher transient mindset among younger employees. Indeed, a regression showed that age had a negative effect on transient mindset ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$). I also asked them to select their generational membership from the following options: "Millennials (born 1981-1996)," "Generation X (born 1965-1980)," or "Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964)." A oneway ANOVA revealed a higher transient mindset for Millennial employees relative to Generation X (F [1, 235] = 6.48, $p < .01$, $M = 2.29$ vs. 1.81) and Baby Boomers (F [1, 235] = 6.48, $p < .01$, $M = 2.29$ vs. 1.89).

To test convergent and discriminant validity for transient mindset, I employed the seven-item protean career attitudes scale created by Briscoe et al. (2006) and shortened by Porter et al. (2016b). Items included, "I am responsible for my success or failure in my career," "Where my career is concerned, I am very much 'my own person,'" and "What's most important to me is how I feel about my career success, not how other people feel" ($\alpha = .81$). I also gathered the six-item boundaryless career attitude scale created by Briscoe et al. (2006) and shortened by Porter

et al. (2016b). Items include “I like tasks at work that require me to work beyond my own department,” “I would enjoy working on projects with people form across many organizations,” “I have sought opportunities in the past that allow me to work outside the organization,” and “I like the predictability that comes with working continuously for the same organization (R)” (α = .65). Transient mindset was not related to protean career attitude (r = -.12, *n.s.*) and positively related to boundaryless mindset (r = .22, $p < .01$). Thus, there was evidence for convergent and discriminate validity.

Finally, to test criterion-related validity, I employed the three-item turnover intentions scale used by Adams and Beehr (1998), which includes two items from Rosin and Korabik (1991) and one item from Michaels and Spector (1982). Items included, “I am planning to leave my job for another job in the near future” and “I often think of quitting this job and finding another” (α = .96). I also included the 18-item organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). Affective comment items included, “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” (α = .91), continuance commitment items included “It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to” (α = .85), and normative commitment items included “I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer (R)” (α = .91). Transient mindset was negatively related to affective commitment (r = -.45, $p < .001$), was not related to continuance commitment (r = -.11, *n.s.*), and was negatively related to normative commitment (r = -.30, $p < .001$). Conversely, transient mindset was positively related to turnover intentions (r = .53, $p < .001$). Overall, these results provided strong support for criterion-related validity.

Perceived organizational prestige. I adapted the eight-item scale created by Mael and Ashforth (1992). Items included, “People think highly of my organization,” “External people

think my organization is a prestigious place to work," "My organization is considered one of the best," "Employees at other organizations respect my organization," "My family and friends are proud that I work for my organization," "My organization is highly regarded by others," "People seeking to advance their career should emphasize their association with my organization," and "When other organizations are hiring, they are often interested in people who have worked for organization" ($\alpha = .98$).

Outcome Measures

Organizational identity value. To measure organizational identity value, I used the item for continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem used by Vignoles et al. (2006), as well as two other items from established continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem measures. Participants read the following prompt: "Think about working for the organization that was described earlier. Then rate how you would feel regarding that organization using the scale below. My organization…" The first continuity item, adapted from Vignoles et al. (2006), was "…would give me a sense of continuity in my life." Two other continuity items adapted from Sedikides, Wildschut, Routledge, and Arndt (2015) were "…would provide me with a feeling of connection between my past, present, and future" and "…would create a kind of cohesion across different stages in my life." The first distinctiveness item, adapted from Vignoles et al. (2006), was "…would distinguish me from other people." Two other distinctiveness items adapted from Becker et al. (2012) were "…would give me a sense that I am different from those around me," and "would make me feel unique." The first self-esteem item, adapted from Vignoles et al. (2006), was "…would give me a sense of self-esteem." I also used two positive self-esteem items from the Rosenberg (1965) self-esteem scale. Specifically, I selected the two positively worded items with the highest factor loading as indicated by Alessandri, Vecchione, Eisenberg, and

Laguna (2015). These items were "…would provide me with a positive attitude toward myself," and "…would lead me to feel satisfied with myself." I aggregated across these nine items to measure organizational identity value ($\alpha = .95$).

STUDY 1A: RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

ANOVA results suggested that the manipulations had the intended effects on perceived organizational prestige and transient mindset. Specifically, an ANOVA revealed a strong positive main effect of the low transient mindset condition versus the high condition on transient mindset (F [1, 238] = 272.23, $p < .001$, M = 1.90 vs. 3.97). Thus, participants in the high transient mindset condition did indeed report higher levels of transient mindset than those in the low condition. Likewise, an ANOVA revealed a strong positive main effect of the low perceived organizational prestige condition versus the high condition on perceived organizational prestige (F [1, 238] = 479.65, $p < .001$, M = 1.90 vs. 4.12). Thus, participants in the high perceived organizational prestige condition reported higher levels of perceived organizational prestige than those in the low condition.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1 predicted that transient mindset has a negative relationship with organizational identity value. ANOVA revealed a negative main effect of transient mindset condition on organizational identity value (F [1, 238] = 5.30, $p < .05$, M = 3.14 vs. 2.97). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Hypothesis 2 predicted that this relationship would be moderated by perceived organizational prestige. Results showed that the transient mindset x perceived organizational prestige product term was statistically significant for organizational identity value (F [1, 238] = 4.68, $p < .05$). As shown in Figure 2, the relationship between transient mindset

and organizational identity value was indeed less negative for employees with high perceived organizational prestige (B = -.01, n.s.) than for those with low perceived organizational prestige (B = -.41, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

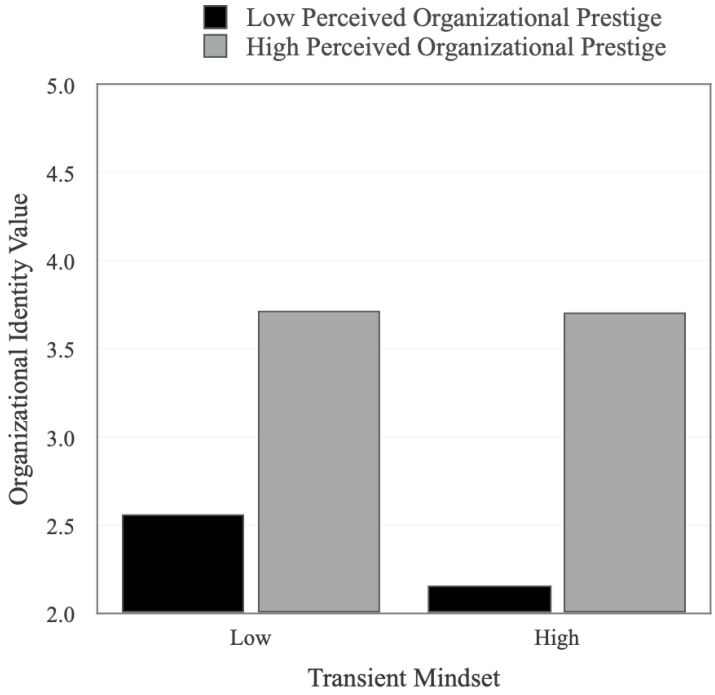

Figure 2. Transient Mindset x Perceived Organizational Prestige Interaction in Study 1a

STUDY 1B: METHOD

In Study 1B, I used a vignette manipulation to examine the relationships between organizational identity value and leisure and family identity value. Thus, in this study, I test Hypotheses 3a-b.

Sample

I recruited 200 participants from Prolific Academic, requiring participants to work full time (working at least 30 hours a week), be at least 18-years old, and live in the United States. Participants were paid $2.50 for what was advertised as a 15-minute time commitment.

Manipulations

In Study 1b, participants received this [**high**/*low*] organizational identity value manipulation:

> Imagine that you are an employee at a large organization. Your organization is a professional services firm that works with a number of clients in a number of industries. Assume that—for whatever reason—your organization [**gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity in your life. You [**think**/*don't think*] that it makes you distinct from other people, and it [**provides**/*does not really provide*] you with a sense of self-esteem. Overall, assume that you [**find**/*don't find much*] value in your organizational identity.

As in Study 1a, I used various screening methods to ensure the quality of my data. First, I excluded 3 participants for missing attention check items (e.g., "Please select 'strongly agree'"; Meade & Craig, 2012). Second, I excluded 29 participants for indicating that they were distracted, did not exert much effort, or provided low quality data in the data quality questions at the end of the survey (Meade & Craig, 2012). Finally, I excluded 28 people who took an unusual amount of time to complete the survey, as this may indicate that they rushed through or took a break. As a result of those screening procedures, I had a final sample size of 140 employees (70% of the 200 participants recruited). Participants had an average age of 35.47 years old (SD = 18.45) and an average tenure of 5.65 years at their organization (SD = 4.99). Fifty percent of participants were male and 49% were female, with the remainder reporting other for gender. Seventy-seven percent were Caucasian, 7% were African American, 8% were Asian, and 4% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remainder reporting other or mixed ethnicity.

Manipulation Checks

The manipulation check used the same scale for organizational identity value described in Study 1a ($\alpha = .98$). All items were assessed using 5-point Likert scales (1 = "*Strongly Disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly Agree*").

Outcome Measure

Leisure identity value. Participants saw the following prompt: "Earlier you read that you worked for a large professional services firm that [**really gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem. The questions below don't ask about the firm you work for—they instead ask about your leisure activities (that is, your hobbies, interests, and activities you pursue for enjoyment). If you knew that your firm [**really gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem, how would that affect the way you view your leisure activities? Please rate how you would feel using the scale below. My leisure activities…" Participants saw the same items used to assess organizational identity value in Study 1a, this time in reference to their leisure activities. As with the other identity elements, I aggregated across these items to measure leisure identity value ($\alpha = .88$).

Family identity value. Participants saw the following prompt: "Earlier you read that you worked for a large professional services firm that [**really gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem. The questions below don't ask about the firm you work for—they instead ask about your family roles (that is, whether you're a spouse, a significant other, a sibling, a parent, and so forth). If you knew that your firm [**really gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and esteem, how would that affect the way you view your family roles? Please rate how you would feel using the scale below. My family roles…" I asked participants to rate items used to assess organizational

identity value in Study 1a, this time in reference to their family. Similarly, I aggregated across these items to measure family identity value (α = .85).

STUDY 1B: RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

The manipulation checks used the same scale for organizational identity value described in Study 1a. ANOVA results showed a strong positive main effect of the low organizational identity value condition versus the high condition on organizational identity value (F [1, 139] = 146.92, $p < .001$, $M = 2.25$ vs. 4.18). Thus, participants in the high organizational identity value condition did indeed report higher levels of organizational identity value.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 3a predicted a negative relationship between organizational identity value and leisure identity value. ANOVA results showed a negative main effect of organizational identity value on leisure identity value which was approaching significance (F [1, 139] = 3.88, $p = .051$, $M = 3.93$ vs. 3.73). Thus, Hypothesis 3a was supported. Hypothesis 3b predicted a negative relationship between organizational identity value and family identity value. Likewise, ANOVA results showed a significant negative main effect of organizational identity value on family identity value (F [1, 139] = 8.91, $p < .01$, $M = 4.08$ vs. 3.78). Thus, Hypothesis 3b was also supported.

STUDY 1C: METHOD

In Study 1C, I examine Hypotheses 5 and 6a-b. Specifically, I use a vignette to manipulate the effects of organizational, leisure, and family identity values on organizational identification.

Sample

I recruited 302 participants from Prolific Academic. Participants were required to work full time (working at least 30 hours a week), be at least 18-years old, and live in the United States, and received $2.50 for what was advertised as a 15-minute time commitment.

Manipulations

In Study 1c, I conducted a 2 (high organizational identity value vs. low organizational identity value) x 2 (high leisure identity value vs. low leisure identity value) x 2 (high family identity value vs. low family identity value) study. Participants received the same [**high**/*low*] organizational identity value manipulation used in Study 1b:

> Imagine that you are an employee at a large organization. Your organization is a professional services firm that works with a number of clients in a number of industries. Assume that—for whatever reason—your organization [**gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity in your life. You [**think**/*don't think*] that it makes you distinct from other people, and it [**provides**/*does not really provide*] you with a sense of self-esteem. Overall, assume that you [**find**/*don't find much*] value in your organizational identity.

Participants then received the following [**high**/*low*] leisure identity value manipulation:

> Further imagine that you are very musical in terms of your leisure pursuits. You play an instrument, see live music fairly often, and are usually up on the "music scene." Assume that—for whatever reason—your leisure activities [**give**/*do not really give*] you a sense of continuity in your life. You [**think**/*don't think*] that they make you distinct from other people, and they [**provide**/*do not really provide*] you with a sense of self-esteem. Overall, assume that you [**find**/*don't find much*] value in your leisure identity.

Finally, participants received the following [**high**/*low*] family identity value manipulation:

> Now imagine that you come from a big family. You have a number of brothers and sisters, with nieces and nephews that live nearby. Assume that—for whatever reason—your family [**gives**/*doesn't really give*] you a sense of continuity in your life. You [**think**/*don't think*] that it makes you distinct from other people, and it [**provides**/*does not really provide*] you with a sense of self-esteem. Overall, assume that you [**find**/*don't find much*] value in your family identity.

Again, I used various screening methods to ensure the quality of my data. First, I excluded 11 participants for missing attention check items (e.g., "Please select 'strongly agree'"; Meade & Craig, 2012). Second, I excluded 4 participants for indicating that they were distracted, did not exert much effort, or provided low quality data in the data quality questions at the end of the survey (Meade & Craig, 2012). As a result of those screening procedures, I had a final sample size of 287 employees (95% of the 302 participants recruited). Participants had an average age of 35.34 years old (SD = 10.03) and an average tenure of 5.70 years at their organization (SD = 5.82). Fifty-four percent of participants were male and 44% were female, with the remainder reporting other for gender. Seventy-four percent were Caucasian, 7% were African American, 12% were Asian, and 5% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remainder reporting other or mixed ethnicity.

Manipulation Checks

The manipulation checks used the same scales for organizational (α = .99), leisure (α = .99), and family identity values (α = .99) described in Study 1b. All items were assessed using 5-point Likert scales (1 = "*Strongly Disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly Agree*").

Outcome Measure

Organizational identification. Participants saw the following prompt: "The previous page asked you to imagine that you are an employee at a large professional services organization. The questions below how you might react to various situations, as an employee of that organization." I asked participants to rate items used to assess organizational identification using items adapted from Ashforth and Mael (1992). Items included, "If someone were to criticize my organization, it would feel like a personal insult," "I would be very interested in what others think about my organization," "If I were to talk about my organization, I would say 'we' rather than 'they'," "My organization's successes would feel like my successes," "If someone were to praise my organization, it would feel like a personal compliment," and "If a story in the media were to criticize my organization, I would feel embarrassed" ($\alpha = .95$).

STUDY 1C: RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

ANOVA results showed a strong positive main effect of the low organizational identity value condition versus the high condition on organizational identity value (F [1, 286] = 857.01, $p < .001$, M = 1.75 vs. 4.29). Thus, participants in the high organizational identity value condition did indeed report higher levels of organizational identity value. Likewise, ANOVA results showed a strong positive main effect of the low leisure identity value condition versus the high condition on leisure identity value (F [1, 286] = 472.21, $p < .001$, M = 2.17 vs. 4.38). Participants in the high leisure identity value condition thus reported higher levels of leisure identity value than those in the low condition. Additionally, ANOVA results showed a strong positive main effect of the low family identity value condition versus the high condition on family identity

value (F [1, 286] = 502.97, $p < .001$, M = 2.07 vs. 4.39). Thus, participants in the high family identity value condition reported higher levels of family identity value.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive relationship between organizational identity value and organizational identification. ANOVA results showed a positive main effect of organizational identity value on organizational identification (F [1, 286] = 413.35, $p < .001$, M = 2.32 vs. 4.14). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported. Hypothesis 6 predicted a negative effect of (a) leisure identity value and (b) family identity value on organizational identity value. However, there was no significant main effect of leisure identity value (F [1, 286] = .09, p = .769, M = 3.26 vs. 3.22) or family identity value (F [1, 286] = .115, p = .735, M = 3.26 vs. 3.21) on organizational identification. Thus, Hypotheses 6a-b were not supported.

STUDY 1D: METHODS

Finally, in Study 1d, I examine Hypotheses 9 and 10. Specifically, I use a vignette manipulation to test the effect of organizational identification on voice and networking intentions.

Sample

Once again, I used Prolific Academic to recruit 200 participants. As in Studies 1a-c, I required participants to work full time (working at least 30 hours a week), be at least 18-years old, and live in the United States. Participants were paid $2.50 for what was advertised as a 15-minute time commitment.

Manipulation

In this study, I manipulated organizational identification to determine its effect on voice and networking intentions. Participants were shown a vignette with [**high**/*low*] levels of organizational identification:

> Imagine that you are an employee at a large organization. Assume that—for whatever reason—you [**identify**/*do not identify*] strongly with your organization. You [**are always**/*aren't really*] interested in what other people think about your organization, and you usually say [**"we" rather than "they"**/*"they" instead of "we"*] to refer to it. If someone praises your organization, it [**feels**/*does not feel*] like they are complimenting you personally. Likewise, if someone criticizes your organization, you [**feel**/*do not feel*] embarrassed. Overall, you [**identify**/*do not identify*] strongly with your organization.

As in the previous studies, I used various screening methods to ensure the quality of my data. First, I excluded one participant for missing attention check items (e.g., "Please select 'strongly agree'"; Meade & Craig, 2012). Second, I excluded 4 participants for indicating that they were distracted, did not exert much effort, or provided low quality data in the data quality questions at the end of the survey (Meade & Craig, 2012). As a result of those screening procedures, I had a final sample size of 195 employees (98% of the 200 participants recruited). Participants had an average age of 32.83 years old (SD = 9.09) and an average tenure of 4.56 years at their organization (SD = 4.46). Fifty-six percent of participants were male and 43% were female, with the remainder reporting other for gender. Seventy-five percent were Caucasian, 8% were African American, 9% were Asian, and 5% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remainder reporting other or mixed ethnicity.

Manipulation Check

The manipulation check used the same Ashforth and Mael (1992) organizational identification scale used in Study 1c (α = .97). All items were assessed using 5-point Likert scales (1 = "*Strongly Disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly Agree*").

Outcome Measures

Voice intentions. I measured voice intentions using the five-item measure created by Maynes and Podsakoff (2014). Participants read the following prompt: "The previous page asked you to imagine that you are an employee at a large organization. The questions below ask how you might react to various situations, as an employee of that organization." Items included: "I would make suggestions about how to do things in new or more effective ways at work," "I would suggest changes to work projects in order to make them better," "I would speak up with recommendations about how to fix work-related problems," "I would make suggestions about how to fix work-related problems," and "I would propose ideas for new or more effective work methods" (α = .97).

Networking intentions. I measured networking intentions using six items from the Short Networking Behavior Scale (Wolff & Moser, 2006; Wolff & Spurk, 2020). Participants read the following prompt: "The previous page asked you to imagine that you are an employee at a large organization. The questions below ask how you might react to various situations, as an employee of that organization." Items included: "I would develop informal contacts with professionals outside of the organization, in order to have personal links beyond the company," "I would confide in acquaintances outside of the organization for job-related matters," "I would compare notes about common work areas if I met a person from outside of the organization who could be an important contact for my career," "I would meet with acquaintances from outside of the

organization during non-work hours," "I would approach acquaintances from outside of the organization to catch up on news and changes in their professional lives," and "I would exchange professional tips and hints with acquaintances from outside of the organization" (α = .89). I excluded three items which referred to events that were unlikely to occur during the COVID-19 workplace restrictions (e.g., trade shows, conferences).

STUDY 1D: RESULTS

Manipulation Check

ANOVA results showed a strong positive main effect of the low organizational identity value condition versus the high condition on organizational identity value (F [1, 194] = 327.58, p < .001, M = 1.87 vs. 4.22). Thus, participants in the high organizational identity value condition did indeed report higher levels of organizational identity value.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 9 predicted a positive relationship between organizational identification and voice. ANOVA results showed a positive main effect of organizational identification on voice intentions (F [1, 194] = 80.96, p < .001, M = 3.01 vs. 4.24). Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported. Hypothesis 10 predicted a negative relationship between organizational identification and networking. ANOVA results did not show a significant main effect of organizational identification on networking intentions (F [1, 194] = .83, p = .364, M = 3.55 vs. 3.67). As a result, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

STUDY 2: METHODS

In Study 1a-d, I used an experimental causal chain approach to test the individual linkages shown in Figure 1. Results supported some hypotheses, but did not support others. Study 2 provides additional tests of my model. Specifically, I use a field study to test the overall

theoretical model, allowing me to test hypotheses that involved both direct effects as well as indirect effects and serial effects.

Sample and Procedure

To examine the effects of changing workplace norms, I needed a sample that contained a variety of professions, age, and organizational tenure. Additionally, I focused primarily on knowledge workers given the higher levels of career mobility in that sphere. For that reason, I used two methods to recruit participants. First, I posted online classified ads in 29 major metropolitan areas across the United States. In these ads, I described my study, which would pay up to $40 in gift card credit, so long as the person was 18 years or older, worked at least 30 hours per week, lived in the United States, and had a coworker who would be willing to participate. Second, I reached out to personal and professional contacts through social media services. I described the study similarly, and provided a link that contained a registration survey. Participants were paid $10 per non-registration survey they completed, meaning that primary participants could earn up to $40, and coworkers could earn $10. A total of 591 people registered for the study, with 187 recruited from personal and professional contacts and 404 recruited from online classified ads. A dummy variable capturing this source distinction did not alter the pattern of results, so the two sources were combined into a single data set.

In order to combat common method bias, I used both time and source separation for the linkages (Doty & Glick, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Specifically, I used a design with four time periods and two sources. Surveys were separated by two weeks, which should help prevent participants from remembering specific responses in previous surveys (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

I administered surveys electronically using the Qualtrics survey platform. At Time 1, employees were asked about their transient mindset. Of the 591 who registered, 531 filled out the first survey. At Time 2, 483 employees completed a measure for perceived organizational prestige and organizational identity value. At Time 3, 467 employees completed a measure for leisure identity value and family identity value. At Time 4, 448 employees completed a measure for organizational identification. Also at Time 4, 361 coworkers completed a measure for networking behavior and voice.

Listwise deletion of missing data resulted in a final sample of 355 participants. As in Study 1a-d, I used certain screening methods to ensure the quality of my data. First, I removed 9 participants for missing a large portion of attention check questions (e.g., "Please select 'strongly agree'"; Meade & Craig, 2012). Second, due to the uncertainty regarding the COVID-19 workplace, I asked participants the following questions: "Using the slider below, please indicate how likely you think it is (from 0 to 100%) that COVID-19 has hindered your ability to find another job in your industry." I excluded 27 people who indicated that COVID-19 had greatly hindered their job mobility. The resulting final sample was 319 participants.

On average, employees were 35.67 years old (SD = 7.32) and had been at their current organization for 6.32 years (SD = 4.06). Forty-five percent of employees were male, and 55% were female. Eighty-five percent were Caucasian, 10% were African American, 2% were Asian, and 2% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remaining employees selecting other or mixed ethnicity. Coworkers had an average age of 38.02 years old (SD = 8.08) and had worked with the employees for an average of 4.03 years (SD = 2.62). Forty-four percent of coworkers were male, and 56% were female. Eighty-two percent were Caucasian, 11% were African American, 3%

were Asian, and 4% were Hispanic/Latino, with the remaining coworkers indicating other or mixed ethnicity.

Measures

I used the same scale as Study 1a to measure transient mindset and perceived organizational control. For organizational identity value, I used the same scale as Studies 1a and 1b. For family and leisure identity values, I used the same scales as Studies 1b and 1c. For organizational identification, I used the same scale as Study 1c and 1d. To assess voice and networking, I adapted the measures from Study 1d to be behavioral—rather than intentional—and to be appropriate for coworker reports. All of the self-report measures were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = "*Strongly Disagree*" to 5 = "*Strongly Agree*"), and voice and networking were rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "*Almost Never*" to 7 = "*Almost Always*"). I also asked employees to rate the extent to which they think about their identity, which I termed "identity thought frequency," to use as a control in my model. To measure this, I used four items, created for this study. Items included, "I often ponder my sense of self," "I frequently reflect on issues of identity," "I think a lot about who I am," and "I commonly think about my identity" ($\alpha = .86$).

STUDY 2: RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations among my variables. Reliabilities for each scale are shown in parentheses on the diagonal.

Table 2. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics for Study 2 [a]

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Transient mindset	2.21	.69	(.89)								
2. Organizational identity value	4.12	.75	-.14*	(.93)							
3. Leisure identity value	4.23	.64	-.15**	.53**	(.92)						
4. Family identity value	4.40	.58	-.21**	.50**	.68**	(.92)					
5. Organizational identification	3.97	.73	-.09	.67**	.38**	.38**	(.88)				
6. Voice	4.91	1.09	-.05	.05	.03	.05	.22**	(.94)			
7. Networking	3.21	1.52	.07	-.29**	-.17**	-.21**	-.16**	.49**	(.95)		
8. Perceived organizational prestige	3.77	.60	-.18**	.25**	.02	.03	.32**	.28**	.23**	(.89)	
9. Identity thought frequency	3.97	.86	.04	.47**	.39**	.37**	.35**	-.02	-.20**	-.12*	(.86)

[a] $n = 319$.* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; two-tailed.

Measurement Model Fitting

I used structural equation modeling in Mplus 8.30 to test my hypotheses (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). First, I tested my measurement model, where five of my variables were modeled with item-level indicators. I modeled organizational identity value, family identity value, and leisure identity value as higher order constructs, with each indicated by the respective continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem facets. Each facet was modeled with item-level indicators. Because of the similar wording between the identity value measures, I also allowed each item to covary with the corresponding item for the other two identity values. The resulting measurement model provided adequate fit to the data: χ^2 (1466) = 3667.65, p = .000; comparative fit index (CFI) = 86; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .10. The standardized factor loadings for the 57 items averaged .81, with only 1 loading below .60.

Structural Model Testing

To test my theoretical model, I used a partially-latent approach, assigning scale scores as single indicators of the latent variable with factor loadings set to the square root of reliability

and error variances set to to (1 - reliability)*variance (Kline, 2005). The factor loadings and error variance for the transient mindset x perceived organizational prestige product were set using the same approach, following Cortina, Chen, and Dunlap's (2001) approach for computing reliability. Before creating the product term, I centered the transient mindset and perceived organizational prestige variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). The resulting structural model in shown in Figure 2. However, in order to test my indirect effect hypotheses, I included additional direct effects not drawn in the figure. Such direct effects, which are described in the footnote for Figure 2, are needed in order to interpret effect decomposition (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Shets, 2002). I also included two theoretical controls. First, I drew a path from perceived organizational prestige to organizational identification, given that perceived organizational prestige may influence the extent to which individuals identify with their organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). I also controlled for identity thought frequency, drawing paths to organizational identity value, leisure identity value, and family identity value. In addition, because family and leisure identity values were measured using the same scale (adapted for each focal construct) at the same time by the same source, I allowed the disturbance terms for family identity value and leisure identity value to covary. The resulting model exhibited acceptable fit to the data: χ^2 (12) = 56.09, p = .000; comparative fit index (CFI) = .95; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .05.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that transient mindset would be negatively related to organizational identity value. As shown in Figure 2, transient mindset was indeed negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, p < .01). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the negative relationship between transient mindset and organizational identity value would be less negative for people with high perceived

organizational prestige than for those with low perceived organizational prestige. As shown in Figure 2, the transient mindset x perceived organizational prestige product term had a significant relationship with organizational identity value when modeled alongside its two latent components ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$). I plotted the interaction using the intercept and regression weights from the manifest data. The resulting pattern is shown in Figure 3. I also conducted simple slopes analysis to examine the effects at high and low levels of perceived organizational prestige, as recommended by Cohen et al. (2003). As predicted, the relationship between transient mindset and organizational identity value was less negative for people with high levels of perceived organizational prestige (B = -.02, n.s.) than for people with low levels of perceived organizational prestige (B = -.27, $p < .001$). Furthermore, the slopes for high and low levels of perceived organizational prestige were significantly different (B difference = .25, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3a predicted that organizational identity value would have a negative relationship with leisure identity value. Organizational identity value was actually positively related to leisure identity value ($\beta = .44$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 3a was not supported.

Hypothesis 3b predicted that organizational identity value would have a negative relationship with family identity value. Organizational identity value was actually positively related to family identity value ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Hypothesis 4a predicted that transient mindset has a positive indirect effect on leisure identity value through organizational identity value. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value. Contrary to predictions, however, organizational identity value was positively related to leisure identity value ($\beta = .44$). To test the indirect effect of transient mindset on leisure identity value through organizational identity value,

I used the BOOTSTRAP command within Mplus to construct confidence intervals, with 1,000 samples. I then used the MODEL INDIRECT command to define the indirect effect. Results indicated that transient mindset actually had a negative indirect effect on leisure identity value through organizational identity value (standardized indirect effect = -.07, 95% CI [-.136, -.017]) Thus, Hypothesis 4a was not supported.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that transient mindset has a positive indirect effect on family identity value through organizational identity value. As noted above, transient mindset was positively related to organizational identity value. However, organizational identity value was positively related to family identity value (β = .39). Bootstrapped results showed that transient mindset actually had a negative indirect effect on family identity value through organizational identity value (standardized indirect effect = -.06, 95% CI [-.130, -.016]). Thus, Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that organizational identity value is positively related to organizational identification. As shown in Figure 3, organizational identity value was indeed positively related to organizational identification (β = .65, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Hypothesis 6a predicted that leisure identity value is negatively related to organizational identification. As shown in Figure 3, leisure identity value did not have a significant relationship with organizational identification (β = .01, n.s.). Thus, Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Hypothesis 6b predicted that family identity value is negatively related to organizational identification. As shown in Figure 3, family identity value did not have a significant relationship with organizational identification (β = .06, n.s.). Thus, Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that transient mindset has a negative indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value. Indeed, as noted above, transient mindset had a negative relationship with organizational identity value, which in turn had a negative relationship with organizational identification. The standardized indirect effect of transient mindset on organizational identification was -.10 (95% CI [-.174, -.027]). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Hypothesis 8a predicted that transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value and leisure identity value. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would, in turn, be negatively related to leisure identity value. Leisure identity value would then be negatively related to organizational identification. As noted above, transient mindset was indeed negatively related to organizational identity value. However, as noted above, the relationship between organizational identity value and leisure identity value was unexpectedly positive (β = .44, $p < .001$). Moreover, the relationship between leisure identity value and organizational identification was non-significant (β = .01). This hypothesis was therefore not supported. The standardized indirect effect was .00 (95% CI [-.022, .015]).

Hypothesis 8b predicted that transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value and family identity value. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would, in turn, be negatively related to family identity value. Family identity value would then be negatively related to organizational identification. As noted above, transient mindset was indeed negatively related to organizational identity value. However, as noted above, the relationship between organizational identity value and family identity value was unexpectedly positive (β =

.39, $p < .001$). Moreover, the relationship between family identity value and organizational identification was non-significant (β = .06). This hypothesis was therefore not supported. The standardized indirect effect was -.00 (95% CI [-.022, .009]).

Hypothesis 9 predicted that organizational identification is positively related to voice. As shown in Figure 2, organizational identification did indeed have a positive relationship with voice (β = .47, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that organizational identification is negatively related to networking. However, organizational identification had a non-significant positive relationship with networking (β = .15). Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Hypothesis 11a predicted that transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on voice thorough organizational identity value and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would, in turn, be positively related to organizational identification. Organizational identification would then be positively related to voice. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related to organizational identification (β = .65, $p < .001$), and organizational identification was positively related to voice (β = .47, $p < .001$). This indirect effect was indeed negative (standardized indirect effect = -.05, 95% CI [-.105, -.012]), providing support for Hypothesis 11a.

Hypothesis 11b predicted that transient mindset has a negative serial indirect effect on voice through organizational identity value, leisure identity value, and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would then be negatively related to leisure identity value. Leisure identity value

would then be negatively related to organizational identification, which would, in turn, be positively related to voice. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related leisure identity value (β = .44, $p < .001$), leisure identity value was not significantly related to organizational identification (β = .01), and organizational identification was positively related to voice (β = .47, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 11b was not supported. The standardized indirect effect was .00 (95% CI [-.009, .010]).

Hypothesis 11c predicted that transient mindset has a negative indirect effect on voice through organizational identity value, family identity value, and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would then be negatively related to family identity value. Family identity value would then be negatively related to organizational identification, which would, in turn, be positively related to voice. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related family identity value (β = .39, $p < .001$), family identity value was not significantly related to organizational identification (β = .06), and organizational identification was positively related to voice (β = .47, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 11c was not supported. The standardized indirect effect was -.00 (95% CI [-.013, .004]).

Hypothesis 12a predicted that transient mindset has a positive serial indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would then be positively related to organizational identification. Organizational identification would then be negatively related to networking. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively

related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related to organizational identification (β = .65, $p < .001$), and organizational identification was not significantly related to networking (β = .15). Thus, Hypothesis 12a was not supported. The standardized indirect effect was -.02 (95% CI [-.059, .005]).

Hypothesis 12b predicted that transient mindset has a positive indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value, leisure identity value, and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would then be negatively related to leisure identity value. Leisure identity value would then be negatively related to organizational identification, which would, in turn, be negatively related to networking. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related leisure identity value (β = .44, $p < .001$), leisure identity value was not significantly related to organizational identification (β = .01), and organizational identification was not significantly related to networking (β = .15). Thus, Hypothesis 12b was not supported. The standardized indirect effect was .00 (95% CI [-.006, .003]).

Hypothesis 12c predicted that transient mindset has a negative indirect effect on networking through organizational identity value, family identity value, and organizational identification. My expectation was that transient mindset would reduce organizational identity value, which would then be negatively related to family identity value. Family identity value would then be negatively related to organizational identification, which would, in turn, be negatively related to networking. As noted above, transient mindset was negatively related to organizational identity value (β = -.16, $p < .01$), organizational identity value was positively related family identity value (β = .39, $p < .001$), family identity value was not significantly

related to organizational identification (β = .06), and organizational identification was not significantly related to networking (β = .15). Thus, Hypothesis 12c was not supported. The standardized indirect effect was -.00 (95% CI [-.007, .001]).

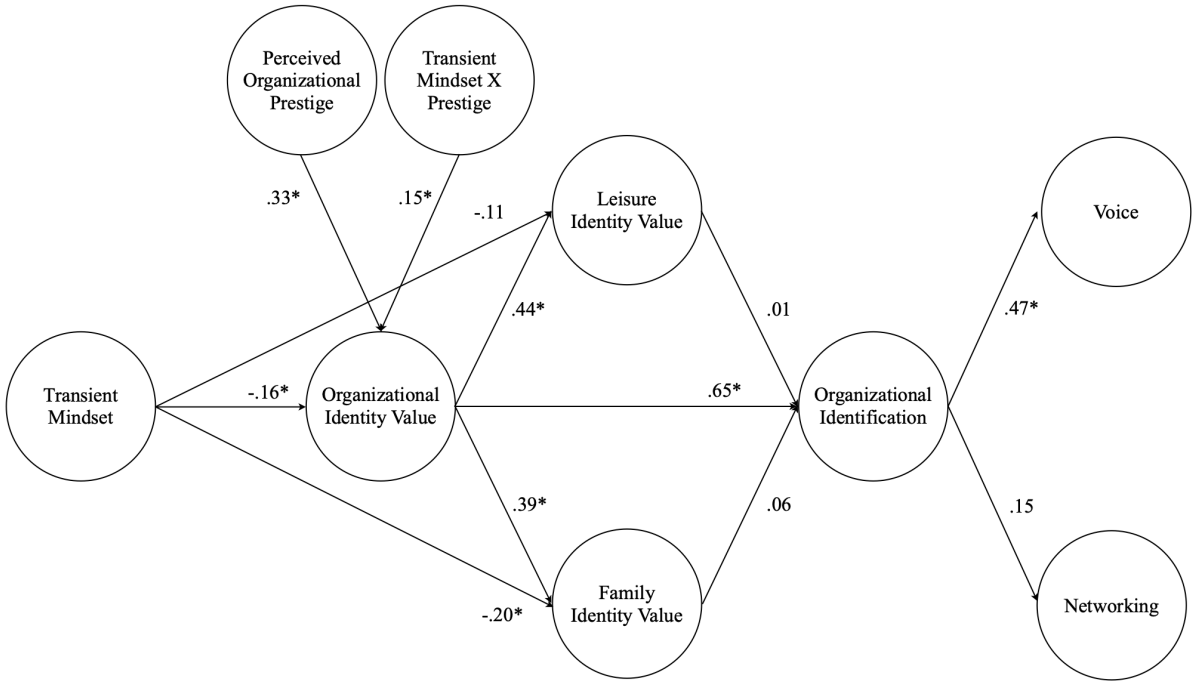

Figure 3. Structural Equation Modeling Results[a, b]

[a]N = 319. Path coefficients are standardized. * $p < .05$, two-tailed.

[b]Although not shown above, paths were also drawn from transient mindset to organizational identification (β = .06), networking (β = -.01), and voice (β = -.05); from organizational identity value to voice (β = -.31*) and networking (β = -.39*); from leisure identity value to voice (β = -.03) and networking (β = -.08); and from family identity value to voice (β = .03) and networking (β = -.14). I also controlled for the effects of perceived organizational prestige on organizational identification (β = .21*), as well as identity thought frequency on organizational (β = .56*), leisure (β = .21*), and family identity values (β = .23*). Additionally, I allowed the disturbance terms to covary for leisure identity value and family identity value (β = .61*).

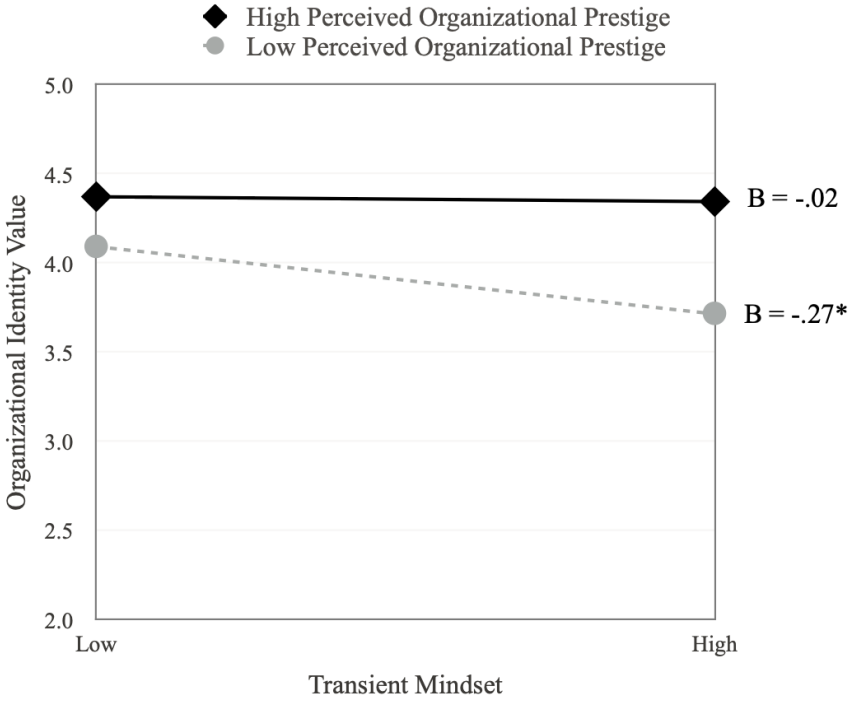

Figure 4. Transient Mindset x Perceived Organizational Prestige Interaction in Study 2[a]

[a]Unstandardized simple slopes shown next to each line. * = $p < .05$, two-tailed.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Research has started to recognize that the workplace is changing, focusing on phenomena such as the protean and boundaryless career attitudes, hobo syndrome, and future time perspective. However, these streams of research do not fully encapsulate the influence that the changing workplace may have on employees. In this paper, I introduce transient mindset to show that employees hold general beliefs about what may hinder or advance their career—specifically, regarding their organizational tenure. Indeed, employees are increasingly advised to change organizations in order to advance their careers, being told that lateral movements may be the best way to secure a pay raise (e.g., Ryan, 2016). As a recognition of this change, employers have started to be more accepting of applicants who show short tenures at their previous organizations (Gallo, 2015).

In this paper, I used identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006) to argue that transient mindset would influence a person's identity constellation, elevating some elements while reducing others. According to this theory, people turn toward identity elements that provide a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem, and away from elements that thwart these motives. Here, I argued that transient mindset will reduce the value people place in their organizational identities because it makes this element seem impermanent and leads employees to spend less time thinking about their organizational identities. As a result, employees should turn toward their other identity elements—leisure and family identities—which better fulfill Breakwell's (1986) identity motives. These identity values, in turn, should

decrease the extent to which employees identify with their organizations, ultimately reducing their voice and networking behaviors. However, I argued that transient mindset may not necessarily have negative implications for employees. Instead, for employees who view their organizations as prestigious, transient mindset may have a less negative effect on the value they place in their organizational identity.

Summary of Results

My results pointed to several key findings, as illustrated in Figure 2. First, I argued that transient mindset would reduce the value people place in their organizational identities, negatively impacting their organizational identification as a result. Specifically, I theorized that people who thought it best to change organizations with some frequency would view their current organization as less permanent and spend less time thinking about that entity. As a result, transient mindset should reduce the continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem provided by their organizational identity (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles, 2011). I found support for this notion in both lab (Study 1a) and field settings (Study 2). These findings pointed to the intrapersonal effects of transient mindset, indicating that it reduces the brightness of work-related stars in employees' identity constellations.

Second, my findings showed that transient mindset can be detrimental to organizational identification. I theorized that people who value their organizational identity would be more likely to self-identify with the values or beliefs of their organization. Specifically, they would place less value in their organizational membership—one of the conditions for identification to occur (Tajfel, 1982). I found support for this argument in both lab and field settings. First, in Study 1c, I manipulated organizational identification using a vignette study, revealing a positive relationship with organizational identification. In Study 2, I was able to test both direct and

indirect effects. My results provided further support for the relationship between organizational identity value and organizational identification. Furthermore, my results suggested that transient mindset does indeed have a negative indirect effect on organizational identification through organizational identity value.

My findings also suggested that transient mindset reduces employee behaviors which may benefit organizations—specifically, their inclination to share ideas or opinions about current processes or strategies. This effect was shown in both lab (Study 1d) and field (Study 2) settings. In Study 1d, I used a vignette manipulation to show that organizational identification has a positive relationship with voice. My findings in Study 2 supported this relationship, and showed a negative indirect effect of transient mindset on voice. Thus, organizations may experience limited growth and advancement if many of their employees have a transient mindset, with employees keeping more of their ideas or suggestions to themselves.

Although left on its own, transient mindset may have the negative consequences outlined above, my results suggested that this may not always be the case. As indicated in Study 1a and Study 2, for employees who perceive their organization to be prestigious, transient mindset may have a less negative effect on the value they place in their organizational identity. For example, an art director who worked for the Louvre may tout this part of her resumé when speaking with other professionals in her field, and people in her life may continue to identify her by this time in her career. She may retain salient connections to the organization even after her tenure ends (Klein et al., 2017), and continue to enjoy her association with the Louvre (Cialdini et al, 1976). Previous research has indicated the importance of perceived organizational prestige (e.g., Dutton, 1994; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Smidts et al., 2001)—a notion for which my results provide further support. My findings suggest that, for employees of prestigious organizations, this

identity may provide a sense of continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem, even in the presence of transient mindset.

Interestingly, my results showed mixed support for the relationship between organizational, leisure, and family identity values. In Study 1b, organizational identity value did indeed have a negative effect on non-work identity elements. However, in Study 2, organizational identity value had a strong positive relationship with leisure and family identities. It is possible that these relationships looked somewhat different in Study 2 due to the COVID-19 workplace. In a time when employees had to work from home, oftentimes with small children who now had virtual school, the identity elements may have seem more intertwined. Previously, employees may have had a clearer separation between their work and non-work identities. Perhaps the drive home at the end of the day served as a ritual that allowed employees to disconnect from their work roles and cognitively shift to their home roles (Vogel, Rodell, & Agolli, under review). Due to COVID-19 restrictions, all identities were activated in the same setting. This may have created a positive correlation between identity elements, as people had more difficulty cognitively separating those different roles.

I also found mixed results for the relationship between organizational identification and employee behaviors. First, I theorized that people who identify with their organization would be more likely to engage in voice behaviors. Voice is perhaps uniquely suited to identification, because it is a proactive way for employees to positively influence their organization (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Crucially, research has suggested that there are risks associated with voice, and even invested employees may fear retaliation for speaking up (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). If employees do not have a strong tie to their employers, I argued, they should be unlikely to take those risks to share their ideas or opinions.

As predicted, organizational identification had a positive relationship with voice—a notion supported in both lab (Study 1d) and field (Study 2) settings.

Contrary to my hypotheses, organizational identification was actually positively related to networking. Although I theorized that networking would be a way to expand employees' own opportunities (Eby et al., 2003; Forret & Dougherty, 2004; Wolff & Moser, 2009; Wolff & Moser, 2010), employees may view networking as a way to benefit or promote their current organizations. A person who attends conferences or non-work events may be a positive reflection on his organization. Some employees may keep in touch with former coworkers with the hopes of recruiting them to their current organization. Perhaps employees exchange professional tips with their peers at other organizations in order to advance their own careers within their current organization (Michael & Yukl, 1993). In other words, it is possible that employees who identify with their organization view networking as a way to promote their organization or grow in their current roles.

Theoretical Implications

This dissertation makes several contributions to theory. First, I introduce the transient mindset, which taps into part of the changing workplace that the current careers literature has yet to examine. The notion of a life-long employee has become increasingly rare, while job changing rates continue to increase (Berger, 2016; Gallup, 2016). This was supported by my nomological study results, which indicated a negative relationship between age and transient mindset. Indeed, students and young professionals are commonly advised to view organizational changes as a way to advance their careers. These results also illustrate one reason why people view organizational identification as declining—younger people have transient mindset, which is negatively related to affective and normative commitment. Because turnover is costly to organizations, it is

important for researchers to investigate employee attitudes that encourage changing organizations.

My research also asserts the importance of examining a person's "whole self." Although current research tends to focus on one or two identity elements at most (Ramarajan, 2014), it is widely recognized that people have multiple identities (e.g., Ramarajan, 2014; Thoits, 1983). This paper uses identity process theory to examine why people move toward some identity elements and away from others (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006), focusing specifically on their organizational, leisure, and family identities. As such, I begin to answer the call to examine more than one identity or identity pairs (Ramarajan, 2014).

My theorizing also introduces identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986; Vignoles et al., 2006) to the organizational literature for the first times. This theory focuses on the idea of an identity constellation composed of various identity elements and attempts to explain why some shining brightly while others are more dim. In its original form, this theory involves three identity motives—continuity, distinctiveness, and self-esteem. Although the identity constellation seems fitting to the current setting, perhaps other identity motives are more relevant to the processes at play. For example, Vignoles et al. (2006) examined the role of these original three motives as well as belongingness, meaning, and self-efficacy. Other researchers have focused on identity motives such as need for identification, self-knowledge, and self-coherence (see Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016 for a review). Perhaps it is worth examining other such identity motives to better understand the relationships between the various stars in a person's identity constellation.

Practical Implications

My findings have several implications for practice. First, my results indicate the cost organizations may experience due to the transient mindset. Employee identification can benefit organizations by increasing important behaviors such as job involvement, in-role performance, and extra-role performance (Riketta, 2005). However, my findings indicate that transient mindset is detrimental to organizational identification. As a result, employees with a transient mindset are less inclined to voice their opinions or ideas. Because voice involves sharing employee ideas or opinions about concerns that they may have, organizations should benefit if they are able to reduce the impact of transient mindset.

Fortunately, my results show that transient mindset does not have to reduce the value people place in their organizational identities. Specifically, employees who believe that their organization is prestigious respond to transient mindset less negatively. Researchers have suggested that there are ways to increase perceived organizational prestige. For example, organizations could implement communication campaigns that increase their visibility with external people (Smidts et al., 2001). Organizations could create employee-led philanthropic events aimed at benefiting their communities or conduct advertising campaigns that highlight their recent achievements. Perceived organizational support may also increase perceptions of prestige (Fuller, Hester, Barnett, Frey, & Relyea, 2006). To increase perceptions of support, organizations could implement family-friendly policies or give bonuses or awards to show that they value employees' contributions.

Managers may also make efforts to reduce the perception that leaving is necessary to advance one's career. Transient mindset is characterized by a belief that staying in one organization may stunt a person's career development. However, organizations may be able to

overcome this belief by providing internal opportunities for employee advancement. For example, organizations could provide career development workshops or continuing education that allows employees to build or expand their current skills. Managers may also consider implementing mentoring programs, pairing new employees with longer-tenured employees. Mentors who have been with the organization for several years may share views with their mentees that indicate the long-term opportunities this organization has to offer.

Limitations

Naturally, my paper has some limitations. First, data collection took place during the COVID-19 workplace restrictions. As such, there was a great deal of overall uncertainty and financial stress created by the pandemic. People had to adjust to working from home, juggling work and non-work lives in a very new way. It is possible that this unique workplace climate influenced some of the relationships in my model. However, I attempted to control for these effects in several ways. First, I removed participants who indicated that COVID-19 had greatly hindered their ability to change jobs. Second, I conducted both lab and field studies in an attempt to remove the noise introduced by the pandemic. As a result, I believe that I minimized the effect of COVID-19 on my data collection.

There may also be causal ambiguity between organizational identification, voice and networking. Due to time constraints, I sent the fourth employee and coworker surveys at the same time. As a result, it is possible coworkers provided ratings of voice and networking before employees rated their organizational identification, depending on which person in the dyad responded first. However, Study 1d provides support for the direction proposed in my model. Specifically, my organizational identification manipulation yielded similar results as my field

study, showing that identification had a significant positive effect on voice and a non-significant positive effect on networking.

Future Directions

In this paper, I introduce the transient mindset in relation to work. I focus on the implications for employee identity, and the resulting behavioral consequences. However, scholars should consider other outcomes of transient mindset. It would be interesting to introduce transient mindset into other long-studied literatures, such as employee motivation. Perhaps employees with transient mindset are more motivated to perform well in their current organization to make themselves more appealing to other organizations. Transient mindset may also influence risk-taking. If employees believe that changing organizations is one way to advance their careers, they may be less likely to jeopardize that future by making bold decisions in their current roles. As these examples suggest, transient mindset is likely to influence many more workplace experiences outside of employee identity.

Yet people may not just experience transient mindset in reference to their work. Investors have begun making increasingly short-term investments, with practices such as day trading becoming more common. This may point to a transient investment mindset, which may not only influence traders, but more substantial shareholders as well. Additionally, people are becoming less tied to one geographical area, moving cities, states, or even countries multiple times in their lives. This may indicate a more general transient mindset regarding location. Future research may consider other types of transient mindset, all of which may help us to better understand our society as a whole.

Researchers should also investigate the relationship between transient mindset and work/non-work identity elements to clarify the conflicting findings my paper presents. Perhaps

finding value in one part of identity encourages people to look for value in other areas. Finding a sense of self-esteem or distinctiveness from organizational membership may create a ‘high ’that people try to experience in other areas of their lives. On the other hand, synergies between work and non-work identity elements may explain some of the reason behind these relationships. If an avid runner works for a sporting goods company, that organizational identity may facilitate their leisure activities by providing discounts or connections to other employees who have the same past time. For a parent of a young child, workplaces may provide connections to other parents for play dates. Future research should further examine the relationship between the various identity elements employees may have.

Conclusion

The prevailing wisdom has increasingly suggested that changing organizations can help employees advance in their careers. University students are advised by professors or advisors that their first job is just their first job—a foot in the door for future employment opportunities. Self-help books and popular press articles commonly assert the advantages that changing careers may provide, warning employees that staying for too long in one organization may lead to career stagnation. Applicant resumés increasingly feature more jobs in their history, as employees change organizations more frequently than they did in the past. Yet this paper indicates the detrimental effects that transient mindset can have for employees and organizations alike. Given these consequences, organizations should find ways to reduce the negative impact of transient mindset on employee identity or begin to identify other ways to encourage identification and voice among employees who have that mindset.

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