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Organizational Commitment Profiles and Employee Well-Being: A Latent Profile Analysis

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ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT PROFILES AND EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING: A LATENT PROFILE ANALYSIS

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
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requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

in

The Department of Psychology

by
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Abstract

The present study examined the influence that employees' organizational commitment profile has on both work and non-work outcomes. While the nomological network of the three-component model of organizational commitment has been studied widely, the application of the latent profile analysis (LPA) has changed the way researchers explore organizational commitment. Specifically, while variable centered approaches (e.g., correlations, multiple regression) measure each type of commitment independently and ultimately assume the linear relationships detected are applicable to every employee, a person-centered approach (e.g., latent profile analysis) groups individuals according to patterns of the reported target variables, allowing researchers to explore the combined or interactive effects of variables within an individual. Considering that employees engage in both work and non-work roles, the influence of their organizational commitment profile on their non-work experiences warrants exploration. Via replication and extension, this study provided evidence of the cross-sample stability of organizational commitment profiles and examined how employees' organizational commitment profiles impact their job stress, workplace anxiety, and work interference with family. Using data gathered via online survey platforms (i.e., Amazon Mechanical Turk and Prolific Academic), this study detected six commonly reported profiles across two samples ($N = 342$; $N = 512$). In testing the hypotheses on Sample 2, this study found that, in general, profiles high in affective commitment are associated with the lowest levels of harmful outcomes when compared to profiles high in continuance commitment but low in affective commitment and profiles with very little commitment. The implications of these results on theory, practice, and future directions are also addressed.

Chapter 1. Introduction

Since its publication in 1990, Allen and Meyer's seminal work, *The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization*, has been cited over 20,000 times. In their work, Allen and Meyer (1990) introduced a new framework for the conceptualization and measurement of an employee's organizational commitment. Specifically, they defined organizational commitment as a psychological state experienced by an employee that includes their desire, need, and obligation to maintain employment with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Allen and Meyer (1990) posited that the three components of organizational commitment stem from different antecedents and will interact with one another, resulting in various behavior-related outcomes.

In recent years, there have been multiple meta-analyses focusing on organizational commitment and its nomological network. In their meta-analysis, Meyer et al. (2002) identified multiple antecedents and outcomes for each component of organizational commitment. Other meta-analyses have focused on both mediator and moderator variables' influence on the organizational commitment-outcome relationship (Cetin et al., 2015; Cohen, 1993; Cohen & Gattiker, 1994; Wright & Bonnett, 2002). Additional meta-analytic research has examined organizational commitment and its impact on the outcomes of individuals across occupational groups (Cohen & Hudecek, 1993), as well as within specific occupations including teachers (Aydin et al., 2011; Çoğaltay, 2015), nurses (Fragkos et al., 2020) and salespeople (Jaramillo et al., 2005).

Although a significant amount of research has been conducted to date examining the influence of organizational commitment on various outcomes, our understanding of the construct has been significantly improved by the implementation of latent profile analysis (LPA; Gibson,

1959). As humans are complex beings, it is unlikely that employees experience only one emotion or attitude toward their organization at a time; rather, employees may experience multiple emotions or attitudes at once. As such, while a more traditional statistical approach (i.e., regression analysis) limits researchers to examining one attitude (e.g., form of commitment) at a time, an LPA allows researchers to examine the effects of multiple attitudes (e.g., forms of commitment) at once, resulting in a more accurate reflection of an individual's experience. In this study, I utilized LPA to explore the complexities of an employee's commitment to an organization and how these feelings of commitment affect other attitudes within the individual.

While the analysis itself is not new, recent advancements in statistical software have made the implementation of LPA easier for researchers, thus increasing the frequency of its use (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017; Vermunt & Magidson, 2005). Specifically, an LPA is used to detect subpopulations of individuals within the larger population based on a set of target variables and a “profile” emerges when multiple individuals report a common pattern of the target variables. These profiles are then compared to one another based on the combination of variables needed to form the profile, as well as how the pattern of variables within each profile interact to influence the outcomes of interest. Applied to organizational commitment, an LPA provides insight into the experiences of employees, as profile membership is determined by the degree to which each commitment type is experienced and how the various degrees of commitment interact with one another to influence behavior (Meyer et al., 2012).

As studying organizational commitment profiles using LPA is a relatively new area of interest, this research aimed to extend previous findings and thus, contribute to the evidence in support of organizational commitment profiles. Considering that, in the past decade, the replication crisis has become a central issue for the field of psychology, researchers have called

for higher quality replication studies and transparent research practices (Fife & Rodgers, 2021; Shrout & Rodgers, 2018; Wiggins & Christopher, 2019). As such, this study first aimed to replicate commitment profiles identified by previous research. Additionally, while much research has been conducted on organizational commitment profiles and their prediction of employee outcomes such as turnover and job performance, less research has focused on the impact of organizational commitment profiles on employee well-being. In their meta-analysis, Gutiérrez et al. (2020) highlighted the importance of employee psychological well-being as it positively related to job performance. Similarly, in a review of mental-health and job performance, Jackson and Frame (2018) provided evidence to suggest that excessive work stress negatively impacts employee mental health, and that poor mental health may hinder job performance. Considering this, I aimed to add to the literature on organizational commitment profiles by exploring their prediction of employee well-being outcomes (i.e., job stress and anxiety), as these outcomes may impact the overall efficacy of employees.

Lastly, this research also aimed to address the relationship between employees' organizational commitment profiles and the work-family interface. As employees engage in both work and nonwork roles, I aimed to determine if individuals with certain commitment profiles are more or less susceptible to experiencing work interference with family (the perception that one's work demands have a negative impact on non-work experiences). In other words, depending on the type(s) of commitment experienced, the amount of time and energy resources an employee has remaining after a workday may vary and as such, their experiences in the family domain may be influenced. Considering this, I aimed to determine if commitment profiles, and in particular, those that are often discussed as beneficial for employees potentially have a downside in that they may be associated with higher work interference with family.

Chapter 2. Literature Review and Hypothesized Relationships

Although organizational commitment and its nomological network have been well established in the literature, organizational commitment profiles are relatively new and their impact on employee well-being has been understudied. As such, the current research aimed to explore organizational commitment profiles and their impact on job stress, anxiety, and work-family conflict. In this chapter, I first review organizational commitment and its theoretical basis, as well as provide empirical evidence to illustrate its nomological network. Then, I address the methodological approach most commonly used to study organizational commitment (i.e., variable-centered approach) and provide theoretical and empirical evidence to support the use of a newer approach (i.e., person-centered approach). Lastly, I review the literature on organizational commitment profiles and provide evidence of their influence on the selected criterion variables.

2.1. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment encompasses an employee's thoughts and actions concerning their dedication to the organization, willingness to work towards organizational goals, and the likelihood of continuing their employment with the organization (Jex & Britt, 2014). To further understand the construct of organizational commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a three-component model that distinguishes different forms of commitment based on the mindset of the employee. *Affective commitment* (AC) is an employee's emotional attachment to the organization such that they feel the desire to maintain employment because they have developed feelings of comfort and competence within the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees that experience high AC are emotionally invested in the success of the organization and are therefore more likely to perform discretionary helping behaviors that benefit

the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). *Normative commitment* (NC) is an employee's feeling of obligation to the organization such that the employee may have internalized loyalty norms and feels the need to repay the organization for the opportunity of being employed (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). An employee that experiences high NC may perform an extra-role task out of obligation to their supervisor but may make little effort to perform the task exceptionally well (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Lastly, *continuance commitment* (CC) is an employee's need to remain with the organization due to the recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, such as losing any accumulated benefits or status achieved within the organization, as well as the employee's recognition of a potential lack of alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). An employee who experiences high CC will likely only perform tasks directly stated in their job description and will be unwilling to perform any extra-role tasks (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Drawing from self-determination theory (SDT) (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Meyer et al. (2012) suggest that the psychological states reflected by an employee's organizational commitment parallel the motivational states described by SDT. SDT posits that all individuals experience three basic psychological needs: the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and that these needs are the basis of self-motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) highlight the importance of satisfying psychological needs such that, if satisfied, the individual will experience greater well-being, whereas if these needs are not satisfied, the individual will experience ill-being. SDT also identifies a continuum of motivational states defined by level of autonomy, ranging from external regulation through introjected regulation to autonomous regulation, as well as each state's distinct impact on an individual's personal experience and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation that is externally regulated is maintained by forces

outside of the individual such that they are motivated to avoid punishment or earn rewards (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Meyer et al., 2012). As these individuals have not satisfied their need for autonomy, they likely experience ill-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation that is influenced by introjected regulation suggest forces have been internalized by the individual, yet the individual does not feel completely in control, such that they are motivated to avoid shame and meet others' expectations (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Meyer et al., 2012). As these individuals have not fully satisfied their need for autonomy, they likely experience variable levels of well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Motivation that is influenced by integrated regulation is fully autonomous, such that the individual has fully internalized goals and is striving to achieve them to find self-fulfillment (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Meyer et al., 2012). As these individuals have fully satisfied their need for autonomy, they likely experience high levels of well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Integrating motivation within the organizational commitment literature, researchers have posited that someone experiencing the motivational states detailed by SDT share similar contexts as someone experiencing the three types of organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2004). Specifically, Meyer et al.'s (2004) integrated model of motivation and organizational commitment suggests that someone with integrated regulation of motivation likely experiences high AC, as they have internalized the goals of the organization and are emotionally invested in the organization's success (Meyer et al., 2004). Providing empirical evidence to support this model, previous research suggests that AC is positively related to autonomous or intrinsic motivation (Gagné et al., 2008; Gagné et al., 2015; Imran et al., 2017). As SDT states that autonomy is a primary human need (Gagné & Deci, 2005), Meyer et al. (2004) suggest that employees experiencing AC will have fulfilled their need for autonomy and will experience greater well-being than someone experiencing NC, followed by those that experience CC.

Consistent with this model, research has found that AC is positively related to life-satisfaction, self-efficacy (Harris & Cameron, 2005) and well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009) as well as negatively related to stress and work-family conflict (Meyer et al., 2002). These findings suggest that individuals who have fully integrated the goals of their organization into their own self-concept experience fully autonomous motivation, and thus, are more likely to experience higher levels of beneficial outcomes and lower levels of harmful outcomes.

Additionally, Meyer et al.'s (2004) integrated model of motivation and organizational commitment suggests that someone with high introjected regulation of motivation likely has high NC, as they are trying to accomplish their obligations to the organization. Previous research has found evidence to suggest that NC is positively related to introjected regulation of motivation (Gagné et al., 2008; Imran et al., 2016). The continuum of motivation detailed by SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000) posits that individuals who experience introjected regulation of motivation feel less autonomy than those who feel integrated motivation. Thus, as those who experience NC have less autonomy than those who experience AC (Meyer et al., 2004), NC has been found to have positive but notably weaker relationships than AC with beneficial work outcomes such as job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer et al., 2002). Investigating the relationship between NC and harmful outcomes, Meyer et al. (2002) found that NC and stress were not studied enough to compute a correlation. Additionally, the correlation between NC and work-family conflict was found to be near zero (Meyer et al., 2002). Similarly, researchers hypothesized that NC would be positively related to well-being but did not find significant results (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009) while others did not explore any relationships involving NC and the measured outcomes (Harris & Cameron, 2005). These mixed findings

suggest that the relationship between NC and both positive and negative outcomes is not well-understood, calling for more research.

Lastly, Meyer et al.'s (2004) integrated model of motivation and organizational commitment suggests that someone with high externally regulated motivation likely experiences high CC, as they are trying to accomplish what is expected of them only to avoid punishment. Supporting this model, Gagné et al. (2008) found evidence to suggest that CC is positively related to external regulation of motivation. As externally regulated motivation is associated with the lowest level of autonomy, individuals with CC will likely experience low levels of well-being (Meyer et al., 2004). Empirical research has found evidence to suggest CC is negatively related to self-efficacy and self-esteem (Harris & Cameron, 2005) and well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009) while it is positively related to stress and work-family conflict (Meyer et al., 2002). These findings support Meyer et al.'s (2004) integrated model of motivation and organizational commitment. Specifically, these findings suggest that an employee with externally regulated motivation has not yet satisfied their need for autonomy and, as they are only committed to the organization due to the costs associated with leaving the organization, they will experience higher levels of harmful outcomes and lower levels of beneficial outcomes

2.2. Variable-Centered vs. Person-Centered Approaches

Common statistical analyses such as correlations and multiple regression are considered variable-centered approaches in that they assume that the sampled individuals belong to a single population and that a set of averaged parameters may be estimated and applied to the entire population (Morin et al., 2018). The previous literature reviewed uses variable-centered approaches such that the studies measure each type of commitment independently, predict various outcomes, and ultimately assume that the averaged linear relationships detected are

applicable to every employee. However, the three-component model of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991) suggests that individuals may simultaneously experience each commitment component to varying degrees. Thus, recent studies using person-centered approaches (e.g., LPA) have resulted in a more nuanced understanding of the complex relationships between the types of commitment within individuals and the resulting relationships to outcomes. Specifically, person-centered approaches such as latent cluster analysis (LCA; used for categorical variables) or LPA (used for continuous variables) relax the assumptions held by variable-centered approaches and consider the possibility that multiple subpopulations may exist and may be characterized by their own unique set of parameters (Morin et al., 2018). In other words, while variable-centered approaches identify the average linear relationship between variables, person-centered statistical approaches identify naturally occurring groups in a sample according to patterns of indicator variables and predict outcomes using group membership (Meyer et al., 2018). Using a person-centered approach, researchers can explore the complex interactions of multiple variables within individuals that a variable-centered approach may not account for.

Previous studies have used both three-way interactions (variable-centered analysis; Gellatly et al., 2006) and LPAs (person-centered analysis; see Table 1 for complete list) to examine the interactive effects of the commitment components, however, when examining organizational commitment, person centered approaches have demonstrated their efficacy above and beyond variable-centered approaches. Specifically, three-way interactions provide an average estimate of each commitment type across the sample, identify one standard deviation above and below the mean, and label those “low” and “high” respectively. Then, if significant, this method assumes that the interactive effects are linear and that on average, individuals would

experience outcomes based on their low/high combination of commitment types. However, this method ignores the fact that natural subpopulations may exist and may lead to the identification of non-naturally occurring groups. If insignificant, researchers would conclude that the commitment components do not interact to influence outcomes. Conversely, an LPA is free to detect naturally occurring subpopulations without losing between-group variation. Therefore, an LPA may provide a more accurate representation of the experiences of individuals in the population.

Illustrating the difference between the two approaches, researchers using a variable centered approach found that CC is negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs; discretionary employee behaviors that benefit the organization) (Meyer et al., 2002). However, using a person-centered approach, OCBs were highest for individuals with above average CC when they also reported above average levels of AC and NC (Meyer et al., 2012). These results suggest that using a variable-centered approach and measuring each commitment type individually does not allow researchers to fully understand the interactive effects of commitment components within individuals that determine their experiences. Therefore, Meyer et al. (2019) suggested that a person-centered approach should be used to better understand the complete context of an employee's commitment and its relationship to outcomes.

2.3. Organizational Commitment Profiles

As the three types of commitment highlight various reasons for staying with an organization, employees' attitudes and behaviors toward the organization will depend on the type of commitment they experience (Meyer et al., 2012). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggest that an individual may experience all three components of commitment at once, the degree to which each component is experienced may vary, and that these variations may interact. The

combination of the commitment components and their interactions should be viewed as the employee's commitment profile (Meyer et al., 2012), such that the employee's attitudes and behaviors will be influenced depending on the context of their commitment. For instance, two employees who report above average NC may find themselves in very different contexts depending on their levels of AC and CC or vice versa.

In a recent review, Meyer and Morin (2016) found that only twelve studies have explored organizational commitment profiles using person-centered analyses. Investigating the literature since this review was published, I found only two additional studies that used LPA to detect organizational commitment profiles. A list of the fourteen studies and a summary of their findings may be found in Table 1. Reviewing published studies that used cluster or latent profile analyses to find organizational commitment profiles, Meyer & Morin (2016) identify nine possible commitment profiles: AC-dominant, CC-dominant, NC-dominant, AC/NC-dominant, CC/NC-dominant, AC/CC-dominant, fully committed, moderately committed, and weakly committed. An employee with an AC-dominant profile experiences stronger AC relative to CC and NC and will feel emotionally committed to their organization, whereas an employee with a CC-dominant profile experiences stronger CC relative to AC and NC and will feel trapped in their organization (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Meyer and Morin (2016) also suggest that an employee with a NC-dominant profile is rare, but if detected, this person will likely feel only obligation to the organization. Employees may experience two types of commitment relatively stronger than the third type, such that employees may have AC/NC-dominant or CC/NC-dominant profiles. Gellatly et al. (2006) suggests that someone with the AC/NC-dominant profile will desire to do what is right for the organization, a context which they named "moral imperative", while someone with the CC/NC-dominant profile will do only what is expected of

them and is likely experiencing an “indebted obligation” to the organization. More specifically, Meyer & Morin (2016) suggest that an employee with a CC/NC-dominant profile will believe that failing to fulfill their obligations to the organization will be costly. Additionally, someone with an AC/CC- dominant profile will be invested in their organization such that the personal benefits gained by their involvement in the organization is too costly to forfeit (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Meyer & Morin (2016) suggest that a fully committed employee is one that experiences similarly strong levels of AC, NC, and CC and thus, considers the costs associated with failing to fulfill their moral obligation to the organization. A moderately committed employee may experience a similar context but experience less commitment across all types (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Lastly, an employee that experiences below average levels of all three commitment types is considered a weakly committed employee (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Although researchers identified nine possible profiles, they found that most studies identify between five to seven. Specifically, the three most frequently reported profiles are AC-dominant, CC-dominant, and AC/NC dominant, while other commonly reported profiles include weakly committed, fully committed, and AC/CC dominant (Meyer & Morin, 2016). As such, I expected that my analyses would produce similar results, leading to my first research question:

Research Question 1. Analysis of commitment data will identify between five and seven organizational commitment profiles, and these will likely include: AC-dominant, CC-dominant, AC/NC dominant, weakly committed, fully committed, and AC/CC dominant profiles.

Table 1. Organizational Commitment Profiles Detected by Previously Published Studies

Article	Revised Label by Meyer and Morin (2016)	Weakly Committed	Moderately Committed	Fully Committed	CC Dominant (trapped)	CC/NC Dominant (indebted)	AC/CC Dominant (invested)	NC Dominant (obligated)	AC Dominant (emotional)	AC/NC Dominant (moral)
Wasti (2005, Study 1) Cluster analysis Standardized scores	AC Dominant Low NC Dominant Low CC Dominant CC Dominant Fully Committed AC/NC Dominant			X	Low X			Low	X	X
Wasti (2005, Study 2) Cluster analysis Standardized scores	Fully Committed Weakly Committed NC/CC Dominant AC Dominant Weak CC Dominant AC/NC Dominant	X		X		X			X	X
Somers (2009) Cluster Analysis Raw Scores	High AC/NC Dominant High CC Dominant Weak AC/NC Dominant High CC/NC Dominant Weak CC Dominant				High Weak		High			High Weak

(table cont'd.)

Article	Revised Label by Meyer and Morin (2016)	Weakly Committed	Moderately Committed	Fully Committed	CC Dominant (trapped)	CC/NC Dominant (indebted)	AC/CC Dominant (invested)	NC Dominant (obligated)	AC Dominant (emotional)	AC/NC Dominant (moral)
Somers (2010) Cluster Analysis Raw Scores	High AC Dominant High AC/NC Dominant Weak AC Dominant High AC/CC Dominant High CC/NC Dominant CC Dominant Low CC/NC Dominant								High	High
							High			
					X					
						Low				
Meyer et al. (2012) Latent Profile Analysis Standardized Scores	Low CC Dominant CC Dominant High CC Dominant Weakly Committed Fully Committed AC/NC Dominant	X		X	Low X High					X
Meyer et al. (2013, Sample 1) Latent Profile Analysis Raw Scores	High AC/NC Dominant AC Dominant Weak AC/CC Dominant Low AC Dominant CC Dominant Weakly Committed						Weak		X Low	High
		X			X					

(table cont'd.)

Article	Revised Label by Meyer and Morin (2016)	Weakly Committed	Moderately Committed	Fully Committed	CC Dominant (trapped)	CC/NC Dominant (indebted)	AC/CC Dominant (invested)	NC Dominant (obligated)	AC Dominant (emotional)	AC/NC Dominant (moral)
Meyer et al. (2013, Sample 2) Latent Profile Analysis Raw Scores	High AC/NC Dominant AC Dominant Weak AC/CC Dominant Low AC Dominant CC Dominant Weakly Committed	X			X		Weak		X Low	High
Stanley et al. (2013) Latent Profile Analysis Raw Scores	Low AC dominant Fully Committed AC/NC Dominant CC Dominant Low AC/CC Dominant Weak AA/CC Dominant			X	X		Low Weak		Low	X
Gellatly et al. (2014) Latent Profile Analysis Standardized Scores	Very Weakly Committed Weakly Committed Moderately Committed High AC/NC Dominant AC Dominant CC Dominant	X X								High X

(table cont'd.)

Article	Revised Label by Meyer and Morin (2016)	Weakly Committed	Moderately Committed	Fully Committed	CC Dominant (trapped)	CC/NC Dominant (indebted)	AC/CC Dominant (invested)	NC Dominant (obligated)	AC Dominant (emotional)	AC/NC Dominant (moral)
Kam et al. (2016) Latent Profile Analysis Raw and normed scores	AC/NC Dominant AC Dominant Low AC Dominant Low AC/CC Dominant Low CC Dominant				Low		Low		X Low	X
Morin, Meyer et al. (2015) Latent Profile Analysis Standardized Scores	Low CC Dominant Weakly Committed CC Dominant Moderately Committed AC Dominant High AC/NC Dominant	X	X		Low	X			X	High
Morin et al. (2016) Latent Profile Analysis Standardized Scores	Low CC Dominant Moderately Committed High AC/NC Dominant Highly Committed Weak AC Dominant		X	X				High	Weak	High

(table cont'd.)

Article	Revised Label by Meyer and Morin (2016)	Weakly Committed	Moderately Committed	Fully Committed	CC Dominant (trapped)	CC/NC Dominant (indebted)	AC/CC Dominant (invested)	NC Dominant (obligated)	AC Dominant (emotional)	AC/NC Dominant (moral)
Meyer, Morin & Wasti (2018)	CC Dominant				X					
Latent Profile Analysis	Weakly Committed	X								
Standardized Scores	Weak CC (LA) ^a				Weak					
	Dominant CC (LA)				X					
	Dominant AC Dominant								X	
	Firmly Committed			X						
	Fully Committed			X						
Oh (2019)	CC dominant				X					
Latent Profile Analysis	Uncommitted	X		X						
Standardized Scores	Fully Committed									
	Moderately Committed		X							
	Low/Moderate Commitment		X							
	AC/NC Dominant									Weak

Note. Fourteen studies identifying organizational commitment profiles have been published to date. This table is an extension of that provided by Meyer and Morin (2016) and includes only studies involving all three commitment mindsets and using cluster analysis or LPA to identify commitment profiles. Per Meyer and Morin (2016), “Along the top right-hand side of the table, we identify the nine basic quantitative and qualitative shape distinctions. An X indicates that the profile identified in the column label was detected and that elevation and scatter were at what we judged to be moderate levels. The qualifiers “high” or “low” are used to indicate deviations from a moderate elevation, whereas the qualifier “weak” is used to reflect a low level of within-profile differentiation between mindsets.” (p. 587). As Meyer et al. (2018) and Oh (2019) were published after 2016, the original profile labels were kept, however, I judged the profiles’ shapes and assigned qualifiers following Meyer and Morin’s (2016) practices.

^aThis study considered two types of continuance commitment: low alternatives (LA) and high sacrifice (HS). This differentiation suggests that for individuals whose profile is driven by continuance commitment, they are more concerned with a lack of alternatives rather than high sacrifice.

Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) suggest that AC is the strongest of the commitment components and as such, its presence will determine the experience of the individual above and beyond the influence of the other components. Considering this, Kabins et al. (2016) established three broad categories of commitment profiles according to the presence of AC and their subsequent relationships with positive outcomes. Specifically, drawing from organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995), researchers suggested that profiles with strong AC may be considered *value-based profiles* (i.e., fully committed, AC/NC dominant, AC-dominant, AC/CC dominant). Specifically, as the employee experiences deep identification and shared beliefs with the organization, value-based profiles result in the strongest relationship with positive workplace outcomes (Kabins et al., 2016). Profiles that lack AC but experience strong NC, CC, or both are considered *exchange-based profiles* (i.e., CC-dominant) and should result in fewer positive workplace outcomes. Researchers suggest that individuals with exchange-based profiles view their membership in the organization as transactional and that their performance is contingent upon receiving desired outcomes (Kabins et al., 2016). Lastly, Kabins et al. (2016) posit that individuals with low to moderate levels of the three components likely experience little to no bond with the organization at all and will develop *weak profiles* (i.e., weakly committed). Thus, these individuals likely experience the most negative workplace outcomes (Kabins et al., 2016). This categorization system for hypotheses proves useful as the nature of LPA is inherently exploratory. Although previous research has identified nine possible profiles, the number and type of profiles detected by LPA vary across samples thus, researchers are unable to form profile-specific hypotheses a priori. As such, this system for hypothesizing has since been adopted by other commitment profile research (Meyer et al., 2018; Xu & Payne, 2018) and therefore, I used this categorization system for my hypotheses.

2.4. Job Stress

Defined as the amount of self-described stress a person experiences at their job (Kabins et al., 2016), job stress has been studied as a predictor, an outcome, and a correlate of organizational commitment profiles. In a meta-analysis exploring the nomological network of organizational commitment profiles, Kabins et al. (2016) hypothesized that level of job stress may influence one's commitment profile and found that value-based profiles were associated with lower levels of stress than weak profiles. However, these analyses did not detect any exchange-based profiles and thus, the researchers could not fully test their hypotheses (Kabins et al., 2016). This meta-analysis provides evidence to suggest that job stress and organizational commitment profiles are significantly related.

Exploring job stress as an outcome of organizational commitment profiles, other empirical research has found evidence to suggest that CC-dominant individuals have significantly greater job stress levels than AC-dominant and AC/NC dominant individuals (Wasti, 2005). Measuring job stress as a correlate of commitment profiles, researchers found that across two samples, low job stress correlated with the AC-dominant profile while high job stress correlated with the CC-dominant profile (Meyer et al., 2018). In line with Meyer et al. (2004), these findings support the assertion that individuals that experience high levels of CC will report lower well-being than individuals who experience high levels of AC or NC.

As high levels of AC suggest that the individual feels a deep identification with the organization, individuals with value-based profiles likely experience less job stress as they have developed the skills to successfully address work demands and feel confident and competent within the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Conversely, high levels of CC suggest that an individual views their relationship with the organization as transactional and may be concerned

with the costs associated with leaving the organization or their lack of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1991). As such, individuals with exchange-based profiles likely experience more job stress as they are attempting to retain the social or financial security provided by their membership in the organization or they feel stuck in a potentially unpleasant, unfulfilling situation. Lastly, individuals with weak profiles likely have little to no bond to the organization and may perceive no benefit of being employed by the organization. Thus, individuals with weak profiles may experience the most job stress. With this logic, I hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1. Membership in value-based profiles will be associated with the lowest job stress, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively.

2.5. Workplace Anxiety

Previous research has shown that as job stress increases, the prevalence of mental health issues also increases (Szeto & Dobson, 2013; Wang, 2006). As such, in addition to job stress, psychological well-being has been shown to be related to organizational commitment profiles. Specifically, Meyer et al. (2013) measured the influence of commitment profiles on anxiety and depression in two military samples. They found that anxiety and depression were highest for individuals with low commitment (i.e., weak profile) and CC-dominant profiles (i.e., exchange-based profile) and that psychological well-being improved as favorability of profile increased (Meyer et al., 2013). Additionally, other research by Meyer et al. (2012) found that general mental health is related to organizational commitment profiles. Specifically, researchers found that fully committed and AC/NC dominant individuals (i.e., value-based profiles) reported the lowest number of health complaints while CC-dominant individuals (i.e., exchange-based profile) reported the highest number of health complaints. (Meyer et al., 2012).

As previously discussed, individuals with value-based profiles have likely become confident in their position within the organization and are able to meet the demands of the job. As such, individuals with value-based profiles may experience the least workplace anxiety. Individuals with exchange-based profiles may feel trapped in the organization or feel a potential loss of security and thus, may experience more workplace anxiety. Lastly, individuals with weak profiles may perceive their membership in the organization as having little to no benefit and thus, may experience the most workplace anxiety. With this logic, I hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2. Membership in value-based profiles will be associated with the lowest workplace anxiety, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively.

2.6. Work-Family Conflict

Defined by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), work-family conflict (WFC) is a source of stress that results when the work and family roles of an individual are incompatible (Carlson et al., 2000). Work-family conflict is bidirectional in that, work may interfere with family (WIF) or family may interfere with work (FIW) (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Meta-analytic evidence has shown that both WIF and FIW are positively related to job stress and negatively related to employee well-being (Amstad et al., 2011). Exploring the nuances of the relationship between organizational commitment and WIF may be beneficial as organizational commitment may result in positive and/or negative outcomes in the family domain. For example, an employee with high commitment may have positive experiences at work which may carry over to the family domain, therefore decreasing WIF. On the other hand, an employee with high commitment may prioritize work over their family or may allow work responsibilities to carry over to the family domain, limiting the employee's time and energy resources to be spent in the family domain, leading to increased WIF.

Although no research has been conducted on organizational commitment profiles and work-family conflict to date, previous research has explored WIF and its relationship with AC, NC, and CC using a variable-centered approach. However, this research has resulted in mixed findings. Specifically, Buonocore and Russo (2013) found that time-based WIF was negatively correlated with AC and NC while strain-based WIF was negatively correlated with AC, NC, and CC. These findings suggest that as an individual experiences more AC and NC, they may feel less work-related stress and as such, experience less WIF. Conversely, Wayne et al. (2013) detected a positive relationship between AC and WIF, suggesting that an emotionally committed employee may prioritize work, leading to increased work-family conflict. Similarly, a study conducted by Benligiray and Sönmez (2012) found that WIF was positively, albeit weakly, related to AC, NC, and CC, suggesting that employees' commitment to work-related responsibilities may hinder their ability to address family-related responsibilities. Lastly, both Casper et al. (2002) and Casper et al. (2011) found that WIF is positively related to CC but did not find evidence to support the expected negative relationship between AC and WIF. In sum, the mixed findings provided by previous studies call for more research into the complexities of organizational commitment and its impact on WIF. Specifically, while AC is most commonly associated with positive employee outcomes, it has also been associated with the negative outcome of WIF. Considering this, I proposed competing hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3. Membership in value-based profiles will be associated with the lowest WIF, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively.

Hypothesis 4. Membership in value-based profiles, exchange-based profiles, and weak profiles will be associated with similarly high levels of WIF.

Chapter 3. Methods

3.1. Participants and Procedure

A best practice when conducting LPA is to utilize at least two samples to establish evidence of construct validity (Spurk et al., 2020). Thus, I tested my hypotheses within two samples. It is important to note that different profiles may arise in each sample as LPA is a data-driven analysis that identifies naturally occurring profiles in a given sample. Specifically, the profiles detected depend on the individuals within the sample and thus, the detected profiles may vary by sample (See Table 1 for examples). Per Spurk et al.'s (2020) best practices, the first sample was used to provide evidence supporting the cross-sample stability of profiles and therefore, was not used to test hypotheses while the second sample was used to both detect profiles and test hypotheses. The first sample included an archival dataset that was previously collected through Amazon Mechanical Turk. As Sample 1 was used to detect profiles only, participants had to be employed full-time (i.e., working 30 or more hours per week) to be eligible. Although 397 participants completed the survey, data from 42 participants were removed as they reported either being unemployed or working less than 30 hours per week. Moreover, data from 13 participants were removed due to incorrect responses to attention check items, resulting in a final sample size of 342.

Participants in Sample 1 held a range of occupations (e.g., addiction counselor, chef, security analyst, graphic designer, respiratory specialist, teacher, etc.). The average age of participants was 35.56 years ($SD = 10.27$). Participants had been working at their current job for an average of 5.57 years ($SD = 4.12$) and worked 42.08 hours on average each week ($SD = 7.72$). 46.1% of participants held a supervisory role. 50.6% of the participants were female, and 75.4% identified as Caucasian.

The second sample was collected through the online survey platform Prolific, where participants were recruited, administered the survey, and paid according to the platform's requirements. I was awarded \$1,000.00 through Graduate Student Strategic Research Grant from Louisiana State University, which was used to fund this data collection. To be eligible, participants had to be employed full-time (i.e., working 30 or more hours per week) and currently living with one or more family members, given that one of the focal outcomes of this study is WIF. In a best practices review, Spurk et al. (2020) suggested that when using LPA, a study should have a minimum sample size of 500. Considering this, I surveyed 545 participants to ensure a reliable LPA in the case that some data were unusable. Upon survey completion, participants received \$1.75. Data from 26 participants were removed as they reported being unemployed, working less than 30 hours per week, or living with no family members. Moreover, data from 7 participants were removed due to incorrect responses to attention check items, resulting in a final sample size of 512.

Participants in Sample 2 held a range of occupations (e.g., IT technician, surgical assistant, architect, flight attendant, speech therapist, sales manager, etc.). The average age of participants was 32.32 years ($SD = 8.73$). Participants had been working at their current job for an average of 4.78 years ($SD = 4.53$) and worked 41.64 hours on average each week ($SD = 7.95$). 43.8% of participants held a supervisory role. 49.6% of the participants were female, and 75.0% identified as Caucasian. 75.2% of participants reported living with a partner while 49.0% reported living with a child. A detailed summary of demographic variables for both Samples 1 and 2 may be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Participant Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Categories	Sample 1		Sample 2	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
<i>Sex</i>				
Male	169	49.4	249	48.6
Female	173	50.6	254	49.6
Non-Binary	-	-	9	1.8
<i>Race*</i>				
White/Caucasian	258	75.4	384	75.0
Asian/Pacific Islander	22	6.4	30	5.9
Black/African American	36	10.5	81	15.8
Hispanic/Latino	23	6.7	42	8.2
American Indian/Alaskan Native	14	4.1	6	1.2
Other	2	0.6	4	0.8
<i>Education Level</i>				
High school diploma or lower	23	6.7	27	5.3
Some college	79	23.1	76	14.8
Associate degree (or equivalent)	43	12.6	30	5.9
Bachelor's degree (or equivalent)	146	42.7	208	40.6
Master's degree (or equivalent)	40	11.7	130	25.4
Doctoral degree (or equivalent)	11	3.2	41	8.0
<i>Shares Household with:</i>				
Partner	200	58.5	385	75.2
Child(ren)	-	-	251	49.0
Parent(s)	-	-	108	21.1
Sibling(s)	-	-	36	7.0
Roommate(s)	-	-	28	5.5
Other	-	-	9	1.8
<i>Holds Supervisory Position</i>	155	46.1	224	43.8
Demographic Categories	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	35.56	10.27	32.32	8.73
Average Work Hours per Week	42.08	7.72	41.64	7.95
Tenure in Current Job (Years)	5.57	4.12	4.78	4.53

Note. Sample 1 *N* = 342; Sample 2 *N* = 512. *Cumulative percentages exceed 100 as participants were allowed to report more than one race.

3.2. Measures

As Sample 1 was used to detect commitment profiles, only demographic variables and organizational commitment were measured. Sample 2 was used to detect commitment profiles as well as explore their impact on outcome variables thus, demographic variables, organizational commitment, job stress, workplace anxiety, and work interference with family were measured.

Demographics. In both samples, participants were first asked to report their employment status to determine their eligibility for the study. In Sample 2, participants were also asked to report their familial status to determine their eligibility. If eligible, participants in both samples were given additional demographic questions including age, gender, race, occupation, job tenure and education level. The demographic survey can be found in Appendix A.

Organizational Commitment. In both samples, organizational commitment was measured using three scales, each measuring an individual component of commitment, that were originally developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and revised by Meyer et al. (1993). Each scale consists of 6 items, totaling 18 items. Example items include “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me” (affective), “If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization” (normative) and “I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization” (continuance). All items were scored using a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). The affective and normative commitment scales presented acceptable evidence of reliability in Sample 1 ($\alpha = 0.92$; $\alpha = 0.88$) and Sample 2 ($\alpha = 0.90$; $\alpha = 0.90$). Relative to the affective and normative commitment scales, the continuance commitment scale presented less evidence of reliability ($\alpha = 0.78$; $\alpha = 0.74$) in Samples 1 and 2 respectively. These scales can be found in Appendix B.

Job Stress. In Sample 2, job stress was measured using the Stress in General Scale (SIG) developed by Stanton et al. (2001). The scale consists of 15 characteristics of the job and is divided into two subscales, where the first seven items relate to felt pressure and the remaining items relate to felt threat. These subscales are labeled SIG-I and SIG-II, respectively. Participants were instructed to select “yes” if it describes their job, select “no” if it does not describe their job, or select “?” if they cannot decide. To score participant responses, researchers assigned 3 to a “yes”, 1.5 to a “?” and 0 to a “no.” Example items include: “More stressful than I’d like”, “Nerve-racking” and “Pressured.” The SIG provided acceptable evidence of reliability ($\alpha = 0.91$) and can be found in Appendix C.

Workplace Anxiety. In Sample 2, workplace anxiety was measured using the 8-item Workplace Anxiety Scale developed by McCarthy et al. (2016). This scale is a modified version of the performance anxiety scale originally developed by McCarthy and Goffin (2004). An example item says, “Even when I try as hard and I can, I still worry about whether my job performance will be good enough.” Participants responded using a 5-point Likert scale, indicating how much they agree with each statement, where 1 is “strongly disagree” and 5 is “strongly agree”. The Workplace Anxiety Scale presented acceptable evidence of reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$). The items from this scale can be found in Appendix D.

Work-Family Conflict. In Sample 2, work-family conflict was measured using the Work-Family Conflict Scale developed by Carlson et al. (2000). The 18-item scale identifies two directions of work-family conflict, Work Interference with Family (WIF) and Family Interference with Work (FIW), however for this study, only WIF items were used. The scale is further broken down to measure time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based work-family conflict. For this study, only the time-based and strain-based items were analyzed as an overall

measure of WIF, a common practice in work-family research (Hughes & Parkes, 2007), as the behavior-based subscale has previously resulted in poor model fit when included in an overall measure of WIF (Kailasapathy et al., 2014; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). Previous research using this strategy provided evidence of acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .78$) (Kailasapathy et al., 2014). An example item says, “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.” All items were scored using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The time-based and strain-based WIF items from the Work-Family Conflict Scale provided acceptable evidence of reliability ($\alpha = 0.90$) and can be found in Appendix E.

3.3. Analyses

Preliminary Analyses. Following Spurk et al.’s (2020) best practices for LPA, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted for each sample to investigate the factor structure of the target constructs. The following fit indices were calculated for the hypothesized 3-factor and 6-factor models for Samples 1 and 2, respectively: chi square (χ^2), degrees of freedom (df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), and the 90% confidence interval for the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA 90% CI). Fit indices were also calculated for various alternative models in both Samples 1 and 2.

Hypothesis Testing. Using Mplus 8.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017), all models were estimated using the robust maximum likelihood estimator (MLR)¹. Using the three commitment types as profile indicators, latent profiles analyses were conducted for solutions that included two

¹ Although a common research practice, demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, education level) were not included in the analyses as statistical controls as previous research found them to have little influence on commitment profiles (Kam et al., 2016; Morin et al., 2011; Stanley et al., 2013; Morin et al., 2015).

profiles up to ten profiles. As recommended by Johnson (2021), the following four model configurations in which the variance-covariance structure is differentially constrained were compared: variances of indicators held constant between classes with indicator covariances set to 0 within and between classes (Model 1; profile-invariant, diagonal); variances of indicators allowed to vary between classes with indicator covariances set to 0 within and between classes (Model 2; profile-varying, diagonal); variances of indicators held constant between classes with indicator covariances allowed to vary within classes (Model 3; profile-invariant, unrestricted); variances of indicators allowed to vary between classes and indicator covariances allowed to vary within and between classes (Model 4; profile-varying, unrestricted). In total, each model configuration was used to estimate up to 10 profiles and were compared to determine the best fit. For the Sample 1 data, models were initially estimated using 10,000 random sets of start values, 3,300 iterations for the random starts, and 2,500 best solutions for final stage optimization, however, if the best log-likelihood values failed to replicate, the start values were increased incrementally to a maximum of 40,000 starts, 13,000 iterations, and 10,000 optimizations. If at this point the best log-likelihood values were not replicated, we concluded that those solutions failed to converge. As Sample 2 data warranted more complex models, models were first estimated with 25,000 random sets of start values, 6,700 iterations for the random starts, and 6,250 best solutions for final stage optimization. To replicate the best log-likelihood values, these values were increased to a maximum of 70,000 starts, 23,000 iterations, and 18,000 optimizations. As in Sample 1, after this increase, any solutions in which the log-likelihood value was not replicated were not estimated further.

Following best practices outlined by Spurk et al. (2020), the optimal model and number of profiles were selected by examining their theoretical plausibility and by comparing statistical

fit indices. The following indices are reported: Akaike Information Criteria (AIC), Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC), the sample size adjusted BIC (SABIC), Bootstrapped Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT), the adjusted Lo-Mendell-Rubin test (LMR), and entropy (i.e., a value from 0-1 that represents how well each individual fits within their assigned profile where 1 represents perfect assignment). Although reported for full disclosure of results, the AIC, LMR, and entropy values were not considered during class enumeration as extensive research suggests that the BIC, SABIC, and BLRT values are the most effective at detecting the sample's true parameters (Howard et al., 2016; Morgan, 2015; Nylund et al., 2007; van de Schoot et al., 2017; Yang, 2006). Regarding the AIC, BIC, and SABIC, a smaller value indicates a better fitting model. The LMR and BLRT compare a model with k profiles to a model with $k-1$ profiles. If these tests return a significant p-value, the k model should be retained while the $k-1$ model should be rejected. Moreover, profile solutions that contained a profile with less than 5% of the sample were rejected, as Nylund-Gibson and Choi (2018) suggested that rare profiles are difficult to detect in small sample sizes and thus, may be unstable or over-extracted. The automatic BCH procedure (Bolck et al., 2004) in MPlus was used to test Hypotheses 1-4 in Sample 2. This procedure conducts Wald tests to compare the differences in mean scores of the outcomes across profiles detected by the LPA (Bakk & Vermunt, 2016).

Chapter 4. Results

Preliminary Analyses. Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and correlations were calculated and reported in Tables 3 and 4 for Samples 1 and 2, respectively.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Constructs (Sample 1)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. Affective Commitment	4.31	1.53	(.92)		
2. Continuance Commitment	4.51	1.18	-.10	(.78)	
3. Normative Commitment	4.11	1.43	.72***	.14**	(.88)

Note. Reliability coefficients are shown on the diagonal in parentheses. *N* = 342.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for Constructs (Sample 2)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Affective Commitment	4.48	1.44	(.90)					
2. Continuance Commitment	4.30	1.18	.16***	(.74)				
3. Normative Commitment	4.12	1.51	.73***	.36***	(.90)			
4. Job Stress	1.37	0.85	-.46***	.02	-.37***	(.91)		
5. Workplace Anxiety	2.91	1.15	-.13**	.26***	.06	.34***	(.93)	
6. WIF	2.74	1.11	-.25***	.17***	-.08	.53***	.36***	(.90)

Note. WIF = Work Interference with Family. Reliability coefficients are shown on the diagonal in parentheses. *N* = 512. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Presented in Table 5, the results of the CFA for Sample 1 indicated that the hypothesized 3-factor model provided the best fit ($\chi^2 = 813.94$; $df = 132$; RMSEA = .12; RMSEA 90% CI [0.11-0.13]; SRMR = .12; CFI = .82; TLI = .79) when compared to alternative models. However, the values for the fit indices did not meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommended standards for a well-fitting model (i.e., RMSEA below .06; SRMR below .08; CFI and TLI above .95). Also presented in Table 5 are the results of the CFA for Sample 2. These results indicated that the hypothesized 6-factor model provided the best fit ($\chi^2 = 3517.63$; $df = 1019$; RMSEA = .07;

RMSEA 90% CI [.07-.07]; SRMR = .09; CFI = .83; TLI = .82) when compared to alternative models. As with Sample 1, the values for the fit indices of Sample 2 did not meet conventional standards for a well-fitting model and are addressed in the limitations section.

Table 5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Fit Comparisons Across Samples

Models	χ^2 (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	RMSEA 90% CI LowerUpper	
Sample 1 ($N = 342$)							
Hypothesized 3-factor model	813.94 (132)	0.12	0.12	0.82	0.79	0.110.13	
Alternative 2-factor model (AC and NC combined)	1071.33 (134)	0.14	0.13	0.75	0.72	0.140.15	
Alternative 2-factor model (CC and NC combined)	1286.03 (134)	0.16	0.14	0.70	0.65	0.150.17	
Alternative 2-factor model (AC and CC combined)	1290.27 (134)	0.16	0.14	0.70	0.65	0.150.17	
Alternative 1-factor model (AC, CC, and NC combined)	1524.53 (135)	0.17	0.14	0.63	0.59	0.170.18	
Sample 2 ($N = 512$)							
Hypothesized 6-factor model	3517.63 (1019)	0.07	0.09	0.83	0.82	0.070.07	
Alternative 5-factor model (CC and NC combined)	3832.33 (1024)	0.07	0.09	0.81	0.80	0.070.08	
Alternative 5-factor model (AC and NC combined)	3874.32 (1024)	0.07	0.09	0.81	0.79	0.070.08	

(table cont'd.)

Models	χ^2 (df)	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	RMSEA 90% CI	
						Lower	Upper
Alternative 5-factor model (Job Stress and WIF combined)	4450.17 (1024)	0.08	0.10	0.77	0.75	0.08	0.08
Alternative 4-factor model (AC, CC, and NC combined)	4222.15 (1028)	0.08	0.10	0.78	0.77	0.08	0.08
Alternative 4-factor model (CC, NC, and Job Stress combined)	5718.07 (1028)	0.09	0.12	0.68	0.66	0.09	0.10
Alternative 3-factor model (AC, CC, NC, and Job Stress combined)	6118.14 (1031)	0.10	0.14	0.65	0.64	0.10	0.10
Alternative 2-factor model (NC, CC, Job Stress, Anxiety, and WIF combined)	7563.29 (1033)	0.11	0.14	0.55	0.53	0.11	0.11
Alternative 1-factor model (six constructs combined)	10186.32 (1034)	0.13	0.16	0.37	0.35	0.13	0.13

Note. The range of the factor loadings for the hypothesized 3-factor model: AC = .69–.87; CC = .43–.85; NC = .60–.86. The range of the factor loadings for the hypothesized 6-factor model: AC = .66–.85; CC = .40–.69; NC = .69–.87; Job Stress = .46–.73; Workplace Anxiety = .75–.86; WIF = .74–.81. Abbreviations: χ^2 = chi-square statistic; df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA 90% CI = root mean square error of approximation 90% confidence interval.

Latent Profile Analysis (Sample 1). To identify the best fitting solution, the fit indices for the four model configurations each with two to ten profile solutions were compared. As the

profile-varying, unrestricted variance-covariance model configuration provided the best fit, only the fit indices for two to ten profile solutions of this configuration are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Statistical Fit Indices of Profile Structures for Sample 1

Number of profiles	LL	FP	AIC	BIC	SABIC	BLRT (p)	LMR (p)	Entropy
2	-1603.892	19	3245.784	3318.645	3258.373	0.0000	0.0004	1.000
3	-1576.114	29	3210.227	3321.437	3229.442	0.1667	0.0504	0.681
4	-1550.842	39	3179.684	3329.242	3205.525	0.1154	0.1315	0.748
5	-1529.126	49	3156.251	3344.157	3188.718	0.1538	0.2883	0.794
6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7	-1506.057	69	3150.114	3414.716	3195.833	0.6667 ¹	0.6761	0.818
8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. LL = loglikelihood, FP = free parameters, AIC = Akaike information criteria, BIC = Bayesian information criteria, SABIC = sample size-adjusted BIC, BLRT(p) = p -value for the bootstrapped likelihood ratio test, LMR(p) = p -value for the adjusted Lo-Mendell-Rubin likelihood ratio test. Dashes indicate profile solutions in which the best loglikelihood value was not replicated.

¹Less than 10 bootstrap draws were successful therefore, these p -values may be untrustworthy.

Previous research found that for small sample sizes, the BIC is less reliable than the SABIC and that it may underestimate the number of profiles (Morgan 2015; Nylund et al. 2007; Spurk et al., 2020; Yang, 2006). Considering that Sample 1 is smaller than the recommended minimum sample size for LPA (i.e., 500), the SABIC was favored over the BIC during enumeration. With the exception of the two-profile solution, the BLRT values for all converging solutions were insignificant and thus, could not be considered during enumeration. The six-profile, eight-profile, nine-profile, and ten-profile solutions failed to converge and thus, could not be considered. Beginning with the two-profile solution, it provided the largest SABIC value and one of the profiles contained only 1% of the sample. Therefore, the two-profile solution was rejected. Examining the remaining profile solutions from lowest to highest SABIC, the five-profile solution offered the lowest SABIC value, however it had two profiles that contained less than 5% of the sample, thus the five-profile solution was rejected. The seven-profile solution offered the

next lowest SABIC, however, this solution also included multiple profiles with less than 5% of the sample and was rejected. Lastly, in comparing the three and four-profile solutions, although the four-profile solution offered the lower SABIC value, it also included a profile that failed to exceed 5% of the sample, leading to the conclusion that the three-profile solution best fit the data. Although the ideal entropy value of .80 or higher was not achieved, the three-profile solution offered an acceptable entropy value of 0.68 suggesting that individual cases are being accurately assigned to their true profile. Moreover, the three-profile solution did not result in any profiles consisting of less than 5% of the sample. Lastly, the three-profile solution provided theoretically meaningful profiles that have been detected by previous research (See Table 1 for previously detected profiles).

Descriptive statistics, profile labels, and the number of individuals assigned to each profile may be found in Table 7 while an illustration of the three profiles may be found in Figure 1.

Table 7. Means of Commitment Variables Associated with 3-profile Solution for Sample 1

Profiles	<i>N</i>	Affective Commitment		Continuance Commitment		Normative Commitment	
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
1 – CC Dominant	182	3.791	0.161	4.510	0.105	3.472	0.156
2 – Moderately Committed	79	4.064	0.235	4.548	0.188	4.342	0.235
3 – AC/NC Dominant	81	5.917	0.093	4.459	0.133	5.580	0.085

Note. AC = affective commitment; NC = normative commitment; CC = continuance commitment. Profiles 2 and 3 are considered value-based profiles while Profile 1 is considered an exchange-based profile.

Participants in Profile 1 reported below average levels of both AC and NC and average levels of CC thus, this profile was labeled “CC Dominant” ($n = 182$). Participants in Profile 2 reported average scores of all three components, thus Profile 2 was labeled “Moderately Committed” ($n = 79$). Lastly, participants in Profile 3 reported well above average scores for both AC and NC and

average levels of CC, thus Profile 3 was labeled “AC/NC Dominant” (n = 81). Research Question 1 posited that the analysis of commitment data would identify between five and seven organizational commitment profiles, and these would likely include AC-dominant, CC-dominant, AC/NC dominant, weakly committed, fully committed, and AC/CC dominant profiles. The results of the LPA conducted on data from Sample 1 partially addressed Research Question 1 in that, of the three profiles detected, the CC-Dominant (exchange-based) and AC/NC Dominant (value-based) are among the most commonly found profiles and were hypothesized. However, it did not detect the expected number of profiles (i.e., between 5 and 7).

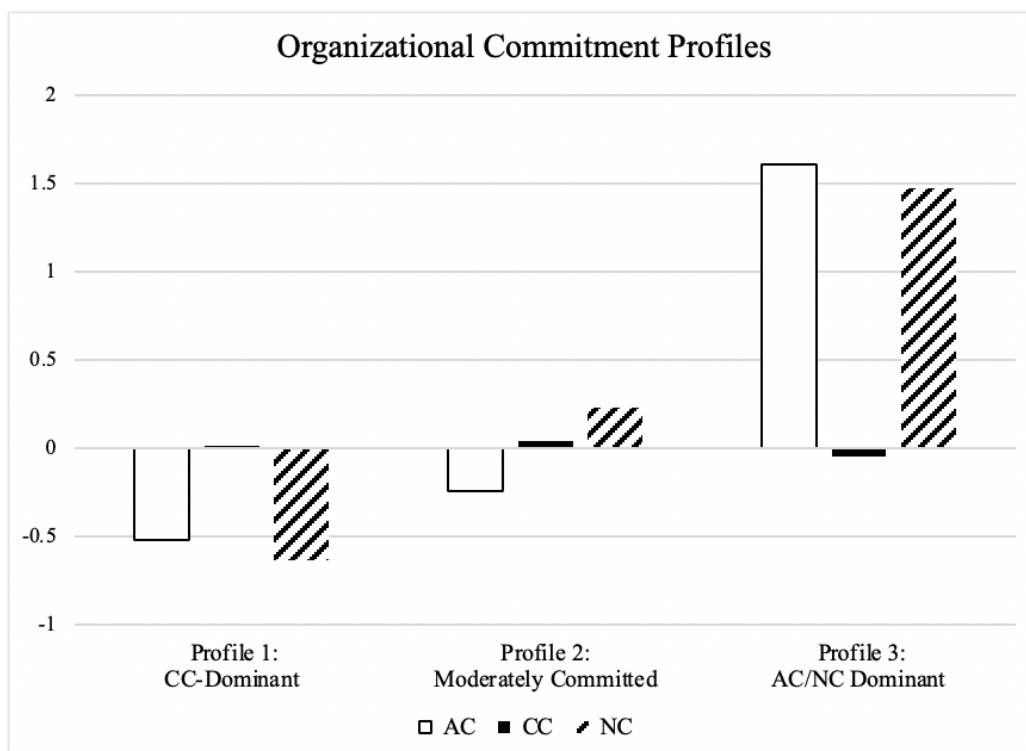


Figure 1. Profiles detected in Sample 1
Note. These values are mean-centered.

Latent Profile Analysis (Sample 2). As in Sample 1, the fit indices for the four model configurations each with two to ten profile solutions were compared. As the profile-invariant, unrestricted variance-covariance model configuration provided the best fit, only the fit indices for two to ten profile solutions of this configuration are reported in Table 8. With the exception

of the two-profile solution, the BLRT values for all solutions were insignificant and could not be considered during enumeration. SABIC was again favored over BIC as Sample 2 met the recommended minimum for conducting an LPA and thus, may be considered a small sample relative to other LPA samples.

Table 8. Statistical Fit Indices of Profile Structures for Sample 2

Number of profiles	LL	FP	AIC	BIC	SABIC	BLRT (<i>p</i>)	LMR (<i>p</i>)	Entropy
2	-1191.196	13	2408.392	2454.279	2413.265	0.0000	0.0044	0.771
3	-1185.144	17	2404.288	2464.556	2410.661	0.1053	0.0012	0.859
4	-1176.564	21	2395.128	2469.577	2403.001	0.1034	0.6649	0.776
5	-1169.223	25	2388.447	2477.076	2397.820	0.1053	0.0343	0.807
6	-1163.674	29	2385.348	2488.158	2396.220	0.3750	0.4511	0.764
7	-1159.175	33	2384.349	2501.340	2396.721	1.0000 ¹	0.1764	0.773
8	-1152.678	37	2379.356	2510.527	2393.227	0.6667 ¹	0.2056	0.801
9	-1148.039	41	2378.079	2523.431	2393.450	0.5000 ¹	0.2715	0.807
10	-1144.263	45	2378.525	2538.058	2395.396	1.0000 ¹	0.5065	0.818

Note. LL = loglikelihood, FP = free parameters, AIC = Akaike information criteria, BIC = Bayesian information criteria, SABIC = sample size-adjusted BIC, BLRT(*p*) = *p*-value for the bootstrapped likelihood ratio test, LMR(*p*) = *p*-value for the adjusted Lo-Mendell-Rubin likelihood ratio test.

¹Less than 10 bootstrap draws were successful therefore, these *p*-values may be untrustworthy.

Considering sample size, Nylund-Gibson and Choi's (2018) suggestion considering the rejection of profile-solutions that include a profile containing less than 5% of the sample was also considered during enumeration of Sample 2. Using this rule of thumb, the three-profile solution and the five through ten-profile solutions were all rejected as they all included at least one small profile. Comparing the two-profile and four-profile solutions, the 4-profile solution offered the lower SABIC value and thus, was selected over the two-profile solution. Although the ideal entropy value of .80 or higher was not achieved, the four-profile solution offered an acceptable entropy value of 0.78 suggesting that individual cases are being accurately assigned to their true

profile. Moreover, the four-profile solution provided theoretically meaningful profiles that have been detected by previous research (See Table 1 for previously detected profiles).

Descriptive statistics, profile labels, and the number of individuals assigned to each profile may be found in Table 9 while an illustration of the three profiles may be found in Figure 2.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics of Commitment Variables Associated with 4-profile Solution for Sample 2

Profiles	<i>N</i>	Affective Commitment		Continuance Commitment		Normative Commitment	
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
1 – Low CC Dominant	49	2.712	0.266	3.930	0.262	2.127	0.211
2 – AC Dominant	15	5.094	0.606	4.125	0.682	2.694	0.251
3 – CC/NC Dominant	34	3.453	0.209	4.733	0.294	4.641	0.217
4 – AC/NC Dominant	158	5.324	0.135	4.494	0.094	4.964	0.104

Note. AC = affective commitment; NC = normative commitment; CC = continuance commitment. Profiles 2 and 4 are considered value-based profiles, Profile 3 is considered an exchange-based profile, and Profile 1 is considered a weak profile.

Participants in Profile 1 reported well below average levels of AC and NC and below average levels of CC. Considering that all three types of commitment were below average, and that CC is the most influential type of commitment in this profile, it was labeled “Low CC Dominant” ($N = 49$). Considering that participants in Profile 2 reported slightly above average levels of AC, average levels of CC, and well below average levels of NC, this profile was labeled “AC Dominant” ($N = 15$). Participants in Profile 3 reported well below average levels of AC and above average levels of CC and NC resulting in its label, “CC/NC Dominant” ($N = 34$). Lastly, given that participants in Profile 4 reported above average levels of both AC and NC and slightly above average levels of CC, this profile was labeled “AC/NC Dominant” ($N = 158$). Similar to the results of Sample 1, the LPA conducted on Sample 2 also partially addressed Research

Question 1. Specifically, of the four profiles detected, the AC-dominant profile (value-based) and the AC/NC Dominant profile (value-based) are among the most commonly found profiles and were hypothesized. However, the analysis did not detect the expected number of profiles (i.e., between 5 and 7).

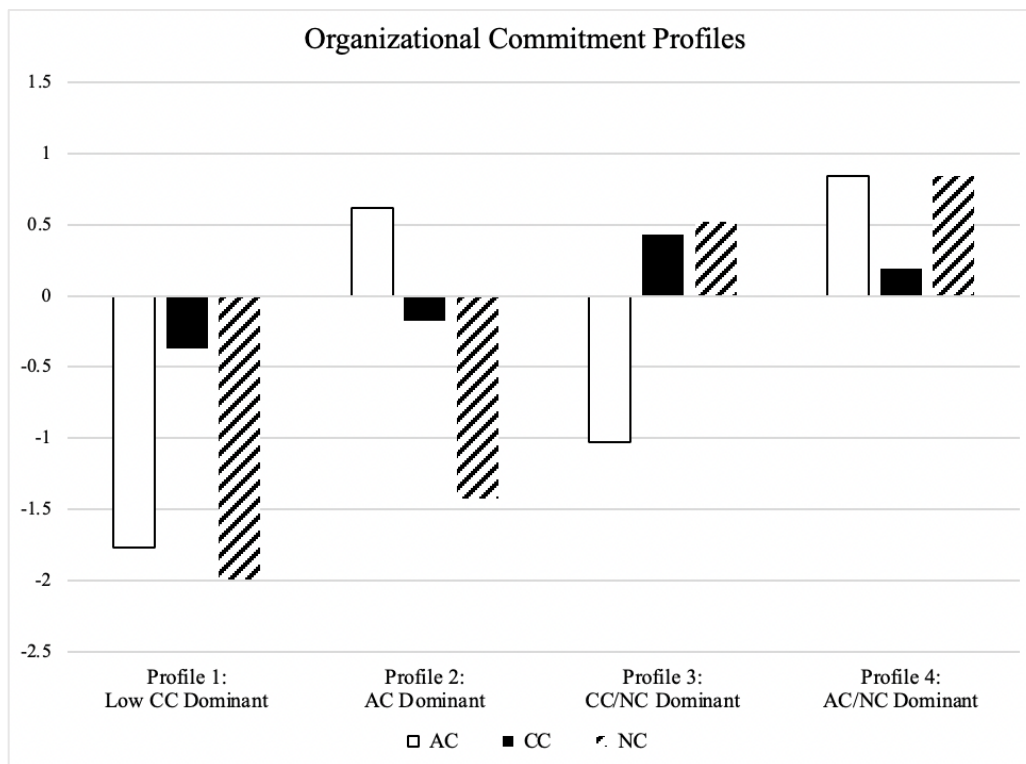


Figure 2. Profiles detected in Sample 2
Note. These values are mean-centered.

Profile membership was used to predict job stress, workplace anxiety, and work interference with family. The mean levels of each outcome variable and their pairwise comparisons across profiles are reported in Table 10. Illustrated in Figure 3, results indicate that job stress is the lowest for individuals in the AC Dominant (Profile 2) and AC/NC Dominant (Profile 4) profiles and highest for the Low CC Dominant (Profile 1) and CC/NC Dominant (Profile 3). Hypothesis 1 posited that membership in value-based profiles would be associated with the lowest job stress, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively.

Table 10. Means of Outcome Variables and Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles

Outcome Variables	Profile means				Profile Comparisons (Chi-Square Statistic)						Summary of comparisons
	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3	Profile 4	1 vs. 2	1 vs. 3	1 vs. 4	2 vs. 3	2 vs. 4	3 vs. 4	
Job Stress	1.966	0.925	1.609	1.098	10.089**	1.850	24.764***	4.351*	0.379	5.782*	2 = 4 < 3 = 1
Workplace Anxiety	2.671	2.389	3.786	2.902	0.428	12.399***	1.062	10.907**	1.821	11.242**	2 = 1 = 4 < 3
WIF	3.009	2.231	3.327	2.533	3.108†	0.981	4.519*	6.388*	0.598	9.133**	2 = 4 < 1 = 3

Note. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, † p is approaching significance. WIF = work interference with family. Profile 1 = Low CC Dominant; Profile 2 = AC Dominant; Profile 3 = CC/NC Dominant; 4 = AC/NC Dominant

Providing partial support for Hypothesis 1, these results suggest that value-based profiles (i.e., AC/NC Dominant and AC Dominant) are associated with lower levels of job stress while exchange-based profiles (i.e., CC/NC Dominant) are associated with higher levels of job stress. Hypothesis 1 was only partially supported as the Low CC Dominant profile (i.e., a weak profile) was not associated with higher levels of job stress than the CC/NC Dominant profile (i.e., an exchange-based profile). Rather, these profiles experienced similarly high levels of job stress.

Illustrated in Figure 4, results indicate that those in the AC Dominant (Profile 2), AC/NC Dominant (Profile 4), and Low CC Dominant (Profile 1) profiles experienced the least workplace anxiety, all of which were not significantly different from one another. Those in the CC/NC Dominant (Profile 3) experienced the highest levels of workplace anxiety. Hypothesis 2 posited that membership in value-based profiles would be associated with the lowest workplace anxiety, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively. Providing partial support for Hypothesis 2, these results suggest that value-based profiles (i.e., AC Dominant, AC/NC Dominant) are associated with lower levels of workplace anxiety than exchange-based profiles (i.e., CC/NC Dominant).

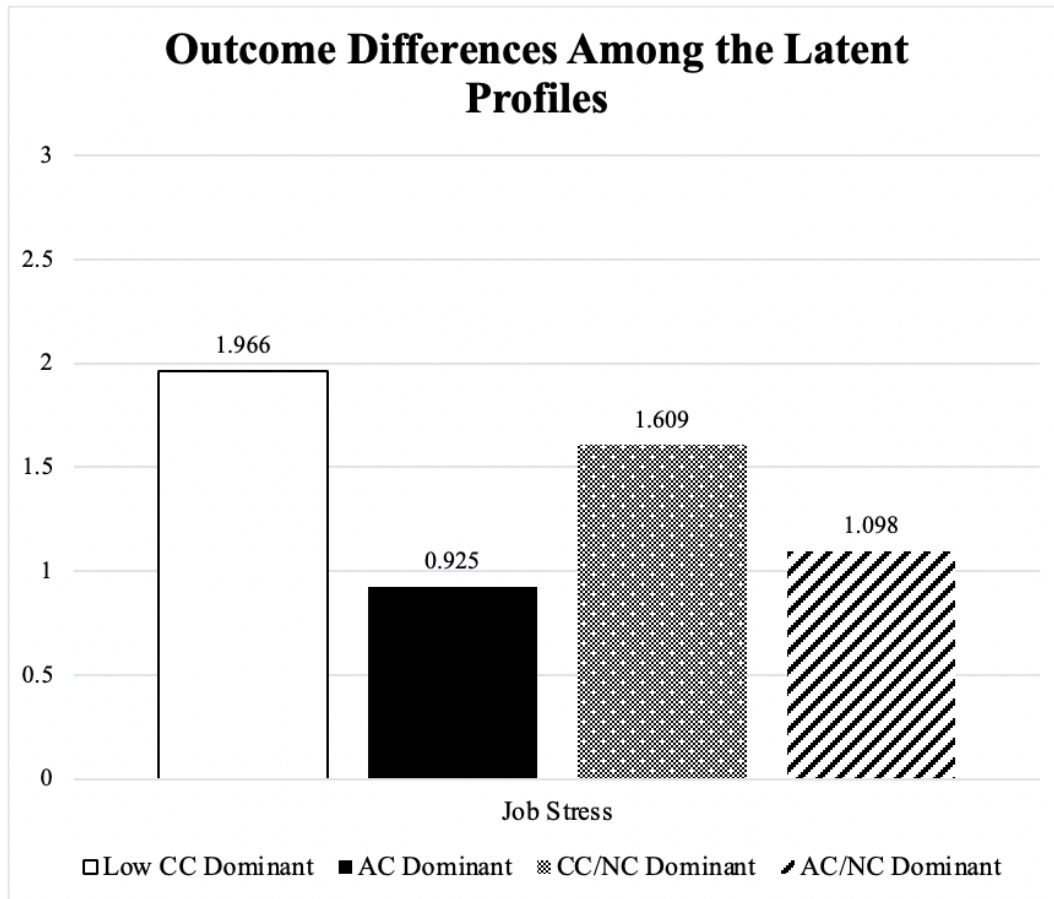


Figure 3. Average job stress reported by each profile in Sample 2

However, inconsistent with Hypothesis 2, is the finding that weak profiles (i.e., Low CC Dominant) are associated with lower levels of anxiety than exchange-based profiles.

Finally, regarding WIF, results illustrated in Figure 5 suggest that individuals in the AC Dominant (Profile 2) and AC/NC Dominant (Profile 4) profiles experience similarly low levels of WIF while individuals in the Low CC Dominant (Profile 1) and CC/NC Dominant (Profile 3) experience similarly high levels of WIF. In my competing hypotheses, Hypothesis 3 posited that membership in value-based profiles would be associated with the lowest WIF, followed by exchange-based profiles and weak profiles, respectively, while Hypothesis 4 posited that membership in value-based profiles, exchange-based profiles, and weak profiles would be associated with similarly high levels of WIF.

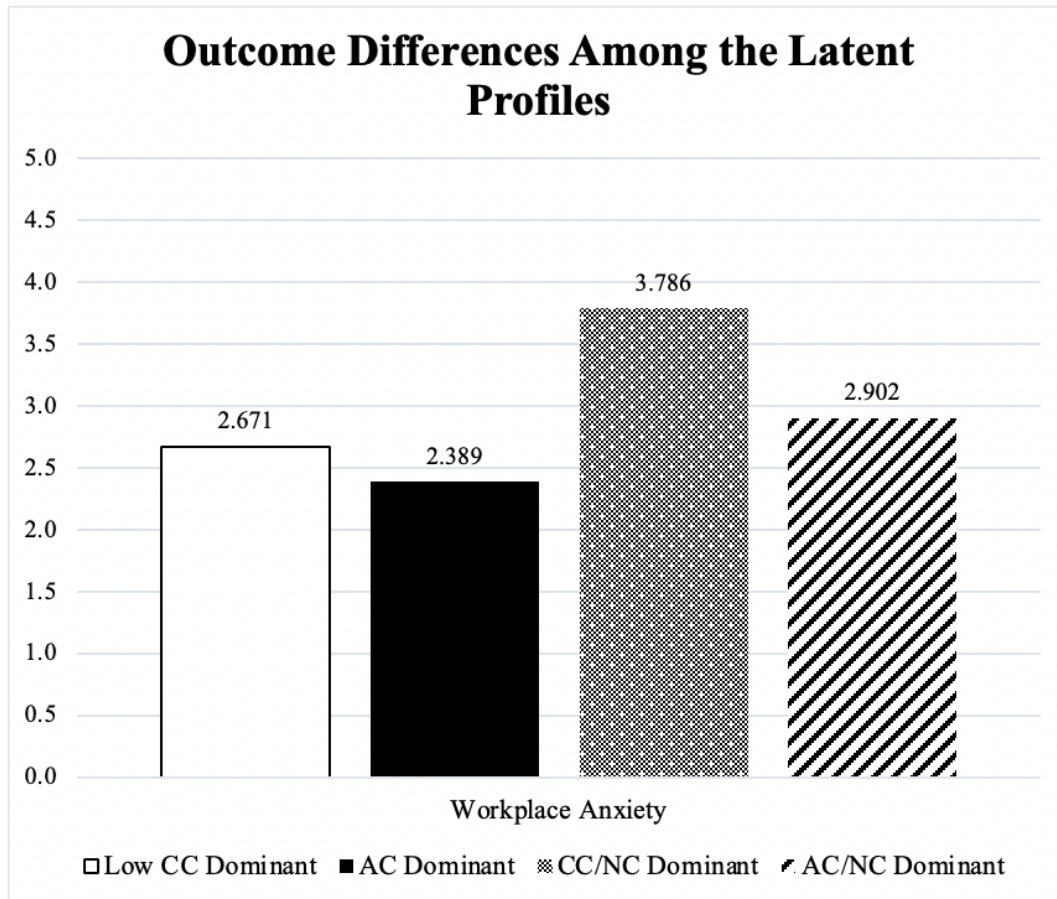


Figure 4. Average workplace anxiety reported by each profile in Sample 2

Providing support for Hypothesis 3 over Hypothesis 4, the results suggest that value-based profiles (i.e., AC/NC Dominant and AC Dominant) are associated with lower levels of WIF while exchange-based profiles (i.e., CC/NC Dominant) are associated with higher levels of WIF. However, Hypothesis 3 is only partially supported in that, the Low CC Dominant profile (i.e., a weak profile) was not associated with higher WIF than the CC/NC Dominant profile (i.e., an exchange-based profile). Rather, these profiles experienced similarly high levels of WIF.

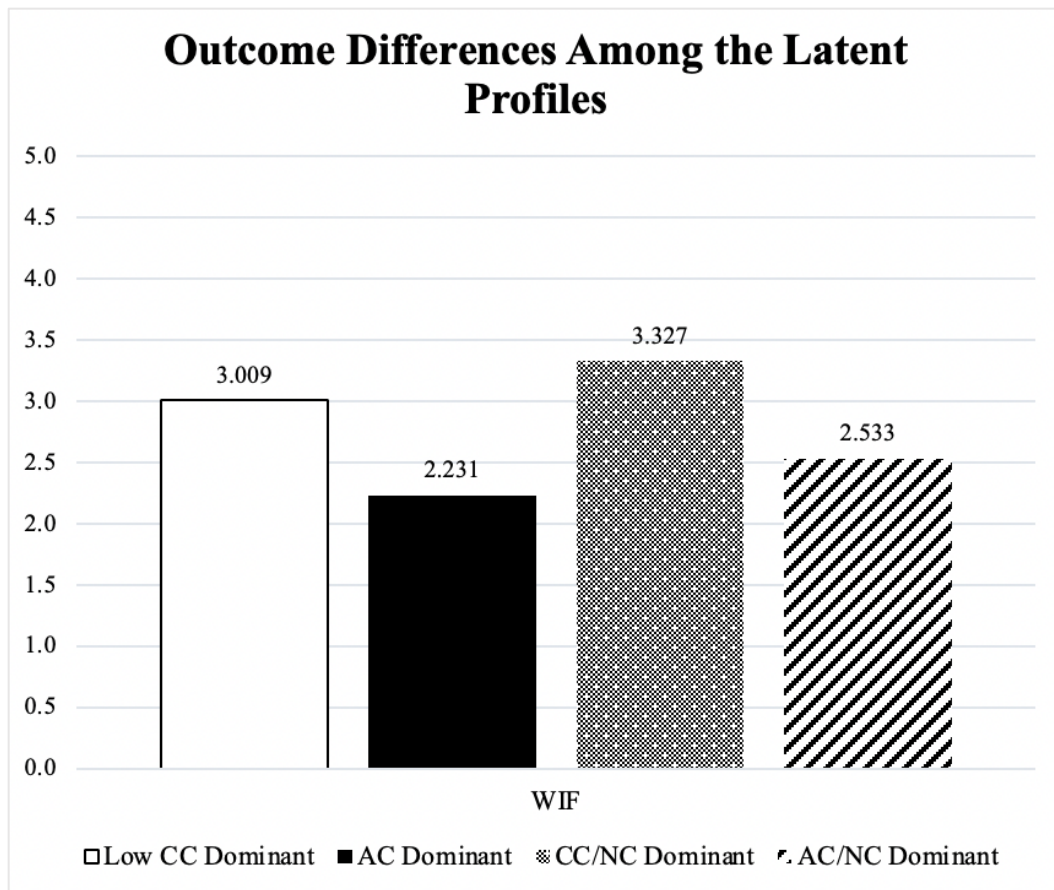


Figure 5. Average WIF reported by each profile in Sample 2

Chapter 5. Discussion

This study aimed to contribute to the existing literature on organizational commitment profiles via replication and extension as it detected previously reported profiles and used them to predict previously unexamined employee-wellbeing outcomes. Sample 1 yielded three profiles while Sample 2 yielded four profiles, all of which have been detected by previous research. Moreover, Sample 2 successfully replicated one profile detected by Sample 1, providing evidence of cross-sample stability of the AC/NC Dominant profile. The findings of Sample 2 provide evidence to support the assertion that organizational commitment is related to employee stress, anxiety, and work interference with family. In line with prior research, the profiles detected were expected and individuals assigned to the more desirable, value-based profiles (i.e., those with driven by AC) experienced the best employee well-being outcomes (i.e., lower job stress and workplace anxiety) relative to individuals assigned to exchange-based profiles (i.e., those that lack AC and are driven by CC) (Meyer et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 2013; Somers, 2009; Wasti, 2005). Recalling that previous research using a variable-centered approach found a mixed relationship between AC and WIF (Benligiray & Sönmez, 2012; Buonocore & Russo, 2013; Wayne et al., 2013), using a person-centered approach provides clarification of this relationship and supports the assertion that AC is negatively related to WIF, as I found that value-based profiles are associated with lower WIF than exchange-based profiles.

While the relationship between both value and exchange-based profiles and the negative employee outcome functioned as hypothesized, the observed relationship between the weak profile (i.e., Low CC Dominant) and negative employee outcomes warrants discussion. Although expected to experience the most negative outcomes across the three profile categories, the weak profile functioned similarly to the exchange-based profile regarding job stress and WIF in that,

they were associated with similarly high levels of these outcomes. This relationship may be due to the weak profile being influenced most by CC. Specifically, the Low CC Dominant profile was classified as a weak profile since these individuals reported below average levels of all three commitment components. However, relative to the reported AC and NC, CC was the most influential commitment type in this profile. Therefore, weak and exchange-based profiles may experience similar outcomes as they both feel trapped in their position within the organization. In other words, these individuals may feel higher stress because they must report daily to an organization or position that is not rewarding in order to meet their instrumental needs. This experience of daily stress may lead to general negative affect and may spillover to the non-work domain. Interestingly though, the weak profile was associated with significantly less workplace anxiety than the exchange-based profile. This finding suggests that individuals with low levels of commitment to their organization may experience less anxiety than expected, likely due to a general disinterest in the organization or job. In other words, individuals with weak commitment profiles may not internalize concern over the success of the organization enough to develop work-related anxiety.

5.1. Theoretical Implications

The current study offers several theoretical implications. First, as commitment profiles are a relatively new topic of interest, this study is contributing evidence to support the construct validity of organizational commitment profiles as well as evidence of profiles' cross-sample stability. Additionally, while the majority of studies examining the influence of organizational commitment profiles focus on workplace outcomes, this study extends the literature as it focuses on employee well-being outcomes. Specifically, measuring job stress and workplace anxiety, this study highlights the impact that the work-related constructs have on employee mental health.

Lastly, to my knowledge, this study is the first to examine the influence of organizational commitment profiles on the non-work domain. As employees engage in both work and non-work roles, it is necessary to explore the impact that one domain has on the other. Previous research examining the individual commitment components and work-family conflict has resulted in mixed findings such that, affective commitment has been related to both high and low levels of work interference with family. However, these results suggest that profiles driven by AC (i.e., value-based profiles) are related to lower levels of WIF. Considering this, these individuals may feel confident about their position within the organization and thus, may be able to separate work-related tasks and thoughts from their non-work experiences. In including WIF as an outcome variable and by examining these variables using a person-centered approach, this study provided evidence toward a more congruent understanding of the relationship between organizational commitment and the work-family interface.

5.2. Practical Implications

The current study also offers two practical implications. First, by understanding the potentially negative impact of an employee's commitment, organizations may use this information to guide their assignment of job duties and the provision of supportive resources. Specifically, if organizations can identify which employees experience profiles associated with higher job stress and workplace anxiety (i.e., exchange-based and weak profiles), they may provide targeted resources in an effort to reduce the negative well-being outcomes of these individuals. Moreover, if organizations are aware that an employee is experiencing increased stress or anxiety due to work, the organization may take the lead in setting boundaries for those employees in an effort to reduce or prevent work interference with family. Based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, previous research found that positive workplace

experiences are a predictor of value-based profiles (Kabins et al., 2016). By showing support of the family domain, organizations may increase their employee's emotional identification with the organization and may even foster the development of value-based profiles.

Second, in understanding the potential impact of their commitment, employees may benefit from reflecting on their own experiences of commitment and by taking steps toward developing a more desirable commitment profile. Specifically, employees may intentionally develop bonds with other employees in the organization, become more involved in the growth of the organization, or internalize the goals of the organization to foster more affective commitment. Moreover, in finding that organizational commitment profiles are associated with work-interference with family, this study also informs employees of a potential spillover effect. By actively attempting to develop a value-based profile, employees may improve their experiences in both the work and non-work domains.

5.3. Limitations & Future Directions

Despite the strengths of this study, there are a number of notable limitations. Specifically, the size of Sample 1 was below that recommend by Spurk et al. (2020) while Sample 2 was just slightly above the minimum recommendation. As a result, some of the profile solutions failed to converge and the number of profiles detected was lower than hypothesized. Considering that the goal of person-centered analyses is to identify subgroups within the larger population, these analyses require significant sample sizes. As such, future research should aim to collect larger, more representative samples in order to best examine the true population differences.

This study was also limited by the performance of the commitment scales and the results of the confirmatory factor analysis. Across both samples, the continuance commitment scale provided lower reliability coefficients relative to the affective and normative commitment scales.

Moreover, four of the six continuance commitment items and two of six normative commitment items had factor loadings less than .70, suggesting that these items were poorly representing the target construct. Additionally, the model's fit indices did not meet the recommended standards for a well-fitting model. Revisiting previous research, the continuance commitment scale is commonly reported to have the lowest reliability of the three scales. Moreover, previous research conducting confirmatory factor analyses on hypothesized models that include these scales have also reported fit indices that fail to meet the recommended standards (Gellatly et al., 2014; Kam et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2016; Oh, 2019). Considering this, future research may benefit from reexamining the psychometric properties of the organizational commitment scales.

Lastly, data collection was limited to a single time point and as such, no causal relationships between organizational commitment profiles and the outcome variables could be examined in this study. Future research would benefit by studying organizational commitment profiles and outcome variables using other research methods that allow for causality to be explored. Specifically, a time lagged survey study would allow researchers to control for baseline levels of organizational commitment and then measure the impact on outcome variables. Moreover, a quasi-experimental design could be used to explore the effect of an organizational intervention aimed at fostering the development of value-based commitment and the resulting change in outcomes.

5.4. Conclusion

The current study aimed to replicate and extend previous research on organizational commitment profiles and their association with employee well-being outcomes. Overall, the results suggest that organizational commitment profiles are stable across samples and that value-

based profiles are associated with the lowest levels of job stress, workplace anxiety, and work interference with family, relative to exchange-based and weak profiles. Both organizations and employees should be cognizant of the impact that organizational commitment profiles may have on employee well-being and take steps toward developing a more affective bond between the two entities.

Appendix A. Demographics

Prolific Screeners (Sample 2 only):

1. What sex were you assigned at birth, such as on an original birth certificate?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
2. Please indicate the number of people living in your household (excluding yourself) that you consider to be members of your family.
 - a. 0
 - b. 1
 - c. 2
 - d. 3
 - e. 4
 - f. 5
 - g. 6
 - h. 7
 - i. 8
 - j. 9
 - k. More than 10
 - l. Other
 - m. Not applicable / rather not say
3. Please try to estimate: How many hours do you work per week?
 - a. 1-10 hours per week
 - b. 11-20 hours per week
 - c. 21-30 hours per week
 - d. 31-40 hours per week
 - e. 41-50 hours per week
 - f. 51-60 hours per week
 - g. More than 60 hours per week
 - h. None

Demographic Items (both samples):

4. On average, how many hours do you work per week?
 - a. (drop down list of responses between 1-168)
5. Do you live with any of the following people? Select all that apply.
 - a. Partner/Spouse
 - b. Child(ren)
 - c. Parent(s)
 - d. Roommate
 - e. Other (fill in the blank)

6. What is your current age in years?
 - a. (drop down list of responses between 1-100 years)
7. Please indicate your race. Select all that apply
 - a. African American
 - b. Asian/Pacific Islander
 - c. Caucasian
 - d. Hispanic/Latino
 - e. Native American or American Indian
 - f. Other (fill in the blank)
8. How do you identify?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Non-binary/ gender non-conforming
 - d. Other: I self-identify as... (Fill in the blank)
9. What is your current job title?
 - a. (Fill in the blank)
10. Do you hold a managerial position in your current job?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
11. How many years have you been working for your current employer?
 - a. (drop down list of responses between less than 1 year-100 years)
12. What is your highest level of education?
 1. Less than high school
 2. High school/GED
 3. Some college
 4. 2-year college degree (Associate's)
 5. 4-year college degree (B.A., B.S.)
 6. Master's degree
 7. Doctoral degree
 8. Professional degree (M.D., J.D.)

Appendix B. Organizational Commitment

On a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)
7. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
8. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.
9. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
10. I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
12. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

Items 1-6 measure affective commitment, items 7-12 measure continuance commitment, and items 13-18 measure normative commitment. (R) indicates a reverse scored item.

Appendix C. Job Stress

Do you find your job stressful? For each of the following words or phrases below write:

Y for “Yes” if it describes your job

N for “No” if it does not describe your job

? for “?” if you cannot decide

1. Demanding
2. Pressured
3. Hectic
4. Calm*
5. Relaxed*
6. Many things stressful
7. Pushed
8. Irritating
9. Under control*
10. Nerve-racking
11. Hassled
12. Comfortable*
13. More stressful than I'd like
14. Smooth running*
15. Overwhelming

* indicates a reverse-scored item. Items 1-7 make up the SIG-I subscale while items 8-15 make up the SIG-II subscale.

Appendix D. Workplace Anxiety

On a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

1. I am overwhelmed by thoughts of doing poorly at work.
2. I worry that my work performance will be lower than that of others at work.
3. I feel nervous and apprehensive about not being able to meet performance targets.
4. I worry about not receiving a positive job performance evaluation.
5. I often feel anxious that I will not be able to perform my job duties in the time allotted.
6. I worry about whether others consider me to be a good employee for the job.
7. I worry that I will not be able to successfully manage the demands of my job.
8. Even when I try as hard and I can, I still worry about whether my job performance will be good enough.

Appendix E. Work Family Conflict

On a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), please indicate how much you agree with the following statements.

1. My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
2. The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.
3. I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.
4. When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.
5. I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.
6. Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Items 1-3 measure time-based work interference with family and items 4-6 measure strain-based work interference with family.

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VITA

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