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A Person-Centered Perspective on Work Behaviors

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Abstract

This study aims to identify profiles of employees characterized by different configurations of performance, presenteeism, absenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors and their generalizability within two distinct samples of workers. To assess the construct validity of the profiles, this research then investigates their association with two correlates related to the work recovery process (Sample 1: Sleeping difficulties and psychological detachment) and two other correlates related to employees' psychological well-being at work (Sample 2: Job satisfaction and work engagement). Finally, this study also considers the role played by employees' perceptions of colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support as well as emotional dissonance as predictors of profile membership (Sample 1). Latent profile analyses led to the identification of five profiles corresponding to a an *Involved, Average (Maladaptive), Deviant-Presenteeism*, *Withdrawn (Presenteeism),* and *Problematic* configuration of workplace behaviors. Low emotional dissonance and high perceived supervisor support, but not organizational or colleagues support, were generally associated with a higher likelihood of membership into the most desirable profiles, which also tended to display more desirable work recovery processes, and higher levels of job satisfaction and work engagement.
Keywords: Social support at work, performance, absenteeism, job demands, psychological detachment, social support at work, latent profile analysis.

The past decades have led to substantial increases in our understanding of the nature, determinants, and implications of employees' work behaviors worldwide (Carpenter & Berry, 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017), including France (Gillet et al., 2010; Lequeurre et al., 2013). These behaviors encompass work performance (behaviors under the control of the employees contributing to the objectives of the organization; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002), but also undesirable behaviors such as presenteeism (attending work while being psychologically or physically unavailable for work; Miraglia & Johns, 2016), absenteeism (failure to report for work; Johns & Al Hajj, 2016), and counterproductive work behaviors (volitional acts that violate the legitimate interests of, or do harm to, an organization or its stakeholders; Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

Despite their interest, previous investigations with French samples but also in other countries have failed to consider the interdependency of these behaviors. Employees routinely behave in a variety of ways and present their own individual behavioral profile combining more than one type of behaviors. However, research has typically focused on a single type of behaviors (e.g., performance: Sandrin et al., 2019a; presenteeism: Mazzetti et al., 2019), sometimes considering pairs of behaviors (e.g., presenteeism and performance: Huyghebaert et al., 2018b; counterproductive work behaviors and performance: Fouquereau et al., 2019), without ever adopting a broader picture focusing on their possible behavioral combinations. This lack of integrative perspective is also present when we consider that the bulk of previous studies in France and more generally worldwide has been guided by a variety of theoretical frameworks, applied in a piecemeal manner to guide research on specific types of behaviors. Other studies have relied on more global measures of work withdrawal behaviors based on the averaging of distinct forms of work behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2007), assuming that there was little value in considering them separately due to their highly correlated nature (Carpenter & Berry, 2017). Yet, this assumption is not backed up by empirical evidence given the fact that correlations among these types of behaviors rather support their independence in different countries (e.g., r = -.14 between performance and counterproductive work behaviors in Fouquereau et al., 2019). From a practical perspective, this limitation is important as it results in research that implicitly assumes that these behaviors are independent from one another, and that intervention should be targeted for each of these behaviors considered separately. This implicit assumption ignores the fact that there might be specific types of employees with distinctive behavioral profiles.

Although previous scholars have highlighted the benefits of a person-centered approach for investigating one specific type of work behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors: Klotz et al., 2018), no research in France or worldwide has yet extended this approach to a broader range of work behaviors. Yet, the value of person-centered approaches has previously been demonstrated for the study of motivation (Gillet et al., 2017a), work engagement and workaholism (Gillet et al., 2017c, 2018), and even psychological well-being at work (Morin et al., 2017) within French-speaking and non-French-speaking samples. By focusing on employees' profiles formed on the basis of performance, absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors, we hope to illustrate how a person-centered approach can contribute to our understanding of the rich array of work behaviors that typically characterize individual employees and that are either required to support organizational functioning (i.e., performance), or that directly interfere with it (absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors).

This study extends the literature on employees' work behaviors in France and more generally worldwide by: (1) proposing a comprehensive theoretical typology that accounts for a range of possible work behaviors profiles as well as for the theoretical processes likely to be involved in each of these profiles; (2) identifying profiles formed by performance, absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors and examining their similarity across two independent samples; (3) documenting the construct validity of these profiles relative to two correlates related to the work recovery process (Sample 1: Sleeping difficulties and psychological detachment), and to two other correlates related to employees' psychological well-being at work (Sample 2: Job satisfaction an work engagement); and (4) considering the role of demographic characteristics, perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support, as well as emotional dissonance in predicting membership into these various profiles (Sample 1). Although, to reflect the current state of research in this area, we rely on a variety of theoretical frameworks to properly anchor our hypotheses, we hope that our integrative framework proposed in this study, in the form of work behaviors scenarios, will help pave the way for future integrative theoretical developments able to account for the diversity and complementarity of employees' work

behaviors in France and worldwide.

Work Behaviors Profiles: Five Theoretical Scenarios

Despite the lack of previous research, or integrative theoretical perspective, on employees' work behaviors profiles, tentative evidence supports the value of a person-centered approach through the demonstration that work behaviors cannot be fully understood in isolation. For instance, Stumpf and Dawley (1981) demonstrated a significant interaction between absenteeism and performance in the prediction of turnover showing that the highest rates of turnover were observed among bank tellers displaying low performance and high absenteeism. Klotz et al. (2018) also revealed that, although various types of organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., civic virtue, altruism) tended to covary among a subset of employees, other employees displayed profiles clearly dominated by only a subset of these behaviors. Despite their interest, these findings need to be extended to other types of work behaviors, namely absenteeism, presenteeism, counterproductive work behaviors, and performance, which is the core objective of the present study. A key challenge for research seeking to understand how different types of work behaviors may co-occur among distinct types of employees is related to the lack of previous theorization related to the nature and psychological underpinning of these behavioral profiles. To address this limitation, we thus propose a theoretical typology designed to account for a range of possible behavioral scenarios designed to provide a heuristic framework for researchers and practitioners.

A first scenario characterizes ***Involved*** employees displaying low absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive behaviors, and high performance. These individuals are assumed to operate in a work environment that fulfills their psychological needs, allowing them to display behaviors that are mainly autonomously regulated (driven by choice, desire, or interest; Ryan & Deci, 2017). More precisely, we assume that these *Involved* workers are more likely to report working in environments in which they feel supported (Caesens et al., 2020, 2021), and that match their own personal goals and values in a way that allows them to be emotionally involved in their work (Fouquereau et al., 2019). Indeed, social support is likely to let workers know that support will be available to help them maintain adaptive behaviors (e.g., work performance) under stressful conditions (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Moreover, when employees feel they have the requisite abilities to meet job demands and perceive high levels of value congruence, there are more likely to adopt more desirable behaviors at work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). As a result, these workers are also expected to present higher well-being and more positive work attitudes.

The second scenario characterizes ***Problematic*** employees displaying low performance coupled with high presenteeism, absenteeism, and counterproductive behaviors. These individuals are assumed to operate in a work environment that they see as failing to meet their basic psychological needs or as displaying values that are antagonistic to their own (Ryan & Deci, 2017). As a result, their actions are thought to be mainly driven by external reasons or by a lack of alternatives (i.e., to get a salary), leading them to maintain an association with an organization that they see as having failed to meet its side of the psychological contract (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012) while waiting for alternative opportunities (Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). When employees feel that their organization fails to uphold its obligations, and therefore its side of the psychological contract, they become more likely to perceive that their exchange of contributions for inducements is imbalanced (Blau, 1964). To restore balance, these individuals might seek to retaliate by engaging in counterproductive work behaviors, by reducing their contributions, and by becoming progressively withdrawn from their work (i.e., presenteeism and absenteeism). Based on the conservation of resources theory loss spiral principle (i.e., any loss of a key resource tends to generate further losses; Hobfoll, 1989), this scenario should be accompanied by lower levels of well-being and psychological functioning at work and in their personal life. Thus, these individuals may come to display symptoms of ill-being or alienation (e.g., sleeping difficulties, lack of psychological detachment, low levels of job satisfaction and work engagement).

A third scenario characterizes ***Average*** employees displaying generally average levels of performance, absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive behaviors corresponding to neither an *Involved*, nor to a *Problematic*, scenario. These employees do their job in a way that matches the organization performance expectations without being role models for their peers, and tend to behave in a generally acceptable manner, but without making special efforts to systematically avoid the occasional display of absenteeism, presenteeism, or even counterproductive behaviors. These individuals can thus be assumed to work in an

environment that is generally able to meet their psychological needs, but without offering them particularly stimulating opportunities (i.e., their work environment is not particularly demanding or challenging). Alternatively, these individuals might also be driven to work for mainly instrumental reasons, and may thus lack the interest for becoming involved in more challenging developmental opportunities. In other words, as long as these individuals are able to achieve a comfortable level of balance and congruence between their own psychological needs and values and those of the organization, they will strive to maintain this balance by avoiding additional involvement opportunities, but also staying away from less desirable withdrawal or counterproductive behaviors. These individuals should also display satisfactory levels of job satisfaction and well-being characterized by no apparent signs of distress, but also without displaying signs of thriving at work.

The fourth scenario characterizes ***Withdrawn*** employees, displaying high levels of presenteeism and/or absenteeism, while being able to maintain an adequate (i.e., average) level of work performance and without embarking in counterproductive work behaviors. Based on self-determination theory, withdrawn workers are assumed to be driven mainly by controlled forms of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017), referring to the role played by internal and external pressures and contingencies (e.g., earning a salary or seeking to gain the approval of significant others). This behavioral pattern is thus likely connected to work environments that they see as being aligned with their own personal goals and values, but as failing to provide them with enough stimulation or challenges, or as failing to provide them with sufficient support to allow them to really benefits from these opportunities (Gillet et al., 2020c). Within this scenario, one could easily imagine two distinct types, or profiles, of employees dominated either by presenteeism or by absenteeism. However, we expect this distinction to be primarily driven by norms, rules, and regulations, at play in specific work contexts. For instance, although *Withdrawn* employees might prefer to stay home rather than to come to work, excessive absenteeism might carry important risks for them in workplaces where work is more closely monitored and where unjustified or frequent absences carry strong consequences. In this situation, presenteeism might serve as a less risky withdrawal strategy for these employees. Indeed, presenteeism is known to represent a way to avoid absenteeism among moderately high performing workers facing psychological or physical difficulties (Stumpf & Dawley, 1981). We thus expect *Withdrawn* profiles dominated by presenteeism to be far more frequent than *Withdrawn* profiles dominated by absenteeism. In both cases, however, *Withdrawn* employees are expected to demonstrate lower psychological well-being due to the perceived misalignment between their values and contributions relative to those of their organization (Ryan & Deci, 2017). However, by withdrawing from work, these workers might be able to better recover from work (i.e., psychological detachment), helping them to maintain a more satisfactory level of functioning in their personal life.

Finally, the fifth scenario characterizes ***Deviant*** employees, displaying acceptable levels of performance, low absenteeism and presenteeism, but engaging frequently in counterproductive work behaviors. These employees are assumed to rely on these counterproductive work behaviors as a way to express their frustration (Stumpf & Dawley, 1981) for a work environment that they see has having failed to uphold its side of the psychological contract (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012) or as clashing with their own personal goals and values (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), despite its ability to provide them with satisfactory developmental opportunities or challenges. In other words, they perceive their work environment as either potentially threatening (because they perceive job demands that unnecessarily hinder their progress toward goal attainment and rewards) but also as potentially challenging (because they have multiple learning opportunities and feel that they can improve their mastery and personal growth). Yet, these challenges may be associated with an active or problem-solving coping style and higher levels of positive emotions because employees feel confident in addressing these challenges and consider their potential gains as meaningful and desirable (Crawford et al., 2010). In such circumstances, individual actions might also be driven by both autonomous and controlled forms of motives, resulting in an incompletely integrated orientation toward work (Ryan & Deci, 2017). These employees might thus be able to display higher levels of well-being (e.g., work engagement) than would otherwise be expected from their desire to express their frustration as a result of the impression that their psychological contract has been breached, but also difficulties in psychologically detaching from work.

Investigation of these scenarios necessitate person-centered analyses, which should result in important

empirical insights into the value of these theoretically-driven scenarios to properly represent the nature of the work behaviors configurations typically displayed by employees. To our knowledge, this is the first study to consider all of these types of behaviors in combination or seeking to achieve a comprehensive view of different types of employees behave in their workplace. Based on the aforementioned theoretical propositions, we expect profiles showing both convergence in behaviors, such as *Involved* employees displaying high performance, and low presenteeism, absenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors, *Problematic* employees presenting a diametrically opposed configuration, and *Average* employees falling in between these two extremes. We also expect profiles dominated by a subset of behaviors, such as *Deviant* (dominated by counterproductive work behaviors) or *Withdrawn* (dominated by absenteeism and/or presenteeism) employees:

Hypothesis 1. The observed profiles will reflect the five theoretical scenarios (*Involved, Average, Problematic, Withdrawn*, and *Deviant*).

Work Behaviors Profiles: A Construct Validation Perspective

Person-centered analyses, although they can be used to pursue both inductive and deductive purposes, rely on a naturally exploratory method of analysis (Morin et al., 2018). It is thus critical, to support the interpretation of a person-centered solution as reflecting meaningful subpopulations of employees, to follow a process of construct validation designed to document the replicability and meaningfulness (in terms of relations with theoretically meaningful predictors, correlates, and/or outcomes) or the extracted profiles (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin et al., 2018). We address this consideration in three complementary manners. First, we rely on two independent samples of diversified workers to formally document the replicability of the identified profiles in terms of number (configural similarity), nature (structural similarity), variability (dispersion similarity), and size (distributional similarity) using an approach developed by Morin et al. (2016). Second, we investigate the nature of the associations observed between the identified profiles and two correlates intimately related to the quality of the work recovery process (Sample 1: Psychological detachment and sleeping difficulties; Huyghebaert et al., 2018b; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005), and with two other correlates related to employees' psychological well-being at work (Sample 2: Work engagement and job satisfaction; Bakker & Oerlemans, 2012). Finally, in Sample 1, we also investigate the role of emotional dissonance and of perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support as predictors of profile membership. For greater precision, this predictive role will be assessed while controlling for the confounding effects of demographics (i.e., education, sex, age, tenure, and working time) previously found to be related to the work behaviors (Fouquereau et al., 2019; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2017) and predictors (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012; Meyers et al., 2020) considered here.

Correlates of Work Behaviors Profiles

Work Recovery. Work recovery denotes the process via which workers replenish their emotional resources to better cope with work-related concerns and with the energy expended as a result of their work behaviors (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), and encompass a variety of psychological processes sharing associations with work behaviors (Sonnentag, 2015). Psychological detachment is conceptualized as a core driver of work recovery, and entails the ability to switch off from, or stop thinking about, job during non-work time (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Prior studies have shown associations between psychological detachment and a variety of work behaviors, including performance (Fritz et al., 2010; Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2018) or low levels of counterproductive behaviors (Chen et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018). In contrast, sleeping difficulties represent an indicator of a failed work recovery process (Huyghebaert et al., 2018b), and have similarly been found to share associations with a variety of work behaviors including reduced performance, or increases in counterproductive work behaviors, absenteeism, and presenteeism (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Van Laethem et al., 2019). Beyond their critical role as part of employees' work recovery process, itself driven by the energy expended at work as a result of different types of behaviors, psychological detachment and sleeping difficulties are also practically important to consider as a result of their strong associations with employee's well-being and perceptions of work-family balance (Barber et al., 2019; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015).

Theoretically, associations are expected between components of the work recovery process and work behaviors. First, recovery from work-related behaviors and efforts during nonwork time helps restore resources lost because of job demands (Hobfoll, 1989; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Restoring one's resources is a precursor to the ability to expand these resources anew in subsequent work days, and thus of the ability to

maintain a satisfactory level of performance while avoiding work withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and presenteeism (Binnewies et al., 2010). More specifically, employees unable to recover from work are more likely to face an exhaustion of their psychological resources, such as a lower ability to focus, which may lead to reduced levels of performance (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). The depletion of resources may also be associated with increased work withdrawal behaviors (e.g., presenteeism, absenteeism), which represent alternative ways of distancing oneself from an overly demanding job (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, although work withdrawal behaviors might emerge as a result of insufficient work recovery, in the long run, they might also be associated with an improved work recovery process, by allowing employees to progressively disconnect from a stressful work context (Sonnentag, 2015).

Likewise, when resources are replenished, frustration and strain are reduced, making employees less likely to adopt counterproductive work behaviors (Penney et al., 2011). Furthermore, adopting counterproductive behaviors has also been shown to interfere with the work recovery process via the generation of feelings of guilt, rumination, or other types of perseverative cognitions that spill over into personal lives and make it harder to recover from work (Wang et al., 2013; Zhong et al., 2010). Thus, Yuan et al. (2018) showed that on days in which they engaged in counterproductive work behaviors, employees tended to experience heightened levels of rumination that undermined their sleep quality. In contrast, perceptions of having had a satisfactory performance on any given day were likely to reduce employees' tendency to think about their unfinished work tasks once they left their workplace, thus helping them to recover (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2018).

In sum, bidirectional associations seem to exist between work behaviors and work recovery, such that some behaviors might result from an insufficient work recovery process while also predicting an improved work recovery process (absenteeism and presenteeism), whereas other behaviors rather seem to be involved in a downward (counterproductive behaviors) or upward (performance) associations with work behaviors. Although our objective is not to further document these reciprocal associations, these considerations support the value of considering sleeping difficulties and psychological detachment as correlates in documenting the construct validity of the work behaviors profiles. More precisely, support for the following hypothesis would be aligned with theoretical assumptions of the stressor-detachment model (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015) and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), while demonstrating that different combinations of work behaviors do indeed share well-differentiated associations with the work recovery process.

Hypothesis 2. Levels of work recovery (i.e., high psychological detachment and low sleeping difficulties) should be at their highest in the *Involved* profile, then in the *Average* one, followed by the *Withdrawn* one, and should be lowest in the *Deviant* and *Problematic* profiles.

Psychological Well-Being at Work. Although well-being is a complex multifaceted construct (Morin et al., 2017), we consider two of the most extensively studied components of psychological well-being at work: Work engagement and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is one facet of employees' emotional well-being (or hedonic well-being; Ryan & Deci, 2001) generally described as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). Conversely, work engagement is a facet of employees' positive functioning at work (or eudaimonic well-being; Ryan & Deci, 2001), and is generally described as a positive work-related emotional state involving vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2019). Both of these components of psychological well-being at work were selected due to their well-documented associations with a variety of work behaviors (Bowling et al., 2015; Christian et al., 2011), as well as their practical relevance for a variety of job attitudes, health, and work-family balance (Halbesleben, 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011).

From a theoretical perspective, happy workers are typically seen as being more productive (Wright & Cropanzano, 2007), less likely to display withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism or presenteeism (Schaufeli et al., 2009), and less likely to display deviant behaviors such as counterproductive behaviors (Zhang & Deng, 2016). Indeed, social exchange theory notes that workers seek to achieve a level of balance between their contributions to their workplace, and the benefits received from their organization (Blau, 1964). In this regard, psychological well-being appears to act as a signal that lets employees know that everything is going well in their work environment and that some form of balance has been achieved (Caesens et al., 2020). As a result, engaged and satisfied workers tend to expand more efforts at work, to work in a more focused manner, to take greater pride in their work, and to be more highly committed to

their colleagues, to their supervisor, and to their organization (Kim et al., 2017). Conversely, low levels of psychological well-being alert employees to an unsatisfactory state of imbalance, which they might be motivated to reduce either by reducing their contributions (i.e., by reducing their performance and/or by adopting withdrawal behaviors), or by finding ways to make the organization provides them with increased benefits (by relying on counterproductive behaviors) (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Conversely, although the bulk of organizational research has considered work behaviors as outcomes of psychological well-being, work behaviors are equally likely to act as drivers of psychological well-being (Sonnentag, 2015). According to self-perception theory (Bem, 1972), workers use their own behaviors as a source of information to infer their attitudes and to maintain their cognitive consistency. Likewise, expectancy-based theories of motivation argue that work performance should be associated with greater feelings of fulfillment, often supported by positive feedback from the organization, itself leading to increased well-being (Lee et al., 2019; Vroom, 1964). Supporting these propositions, research has shown that job performance predicted work engagement (Akkermans et al., 2013) and job satisfaction (Alessandri et al., 2017). From the same perspective, counterproductive or withdrawn workers may come to attribute the source of these behaviors to their own lack of job satisfaction or engagement, another association that has been empirically supported (Chen et al., 2020; Zhang & Deng, 2016). Furthermore, workers who exhibit more adaptive behaviors (i.e., high performance, low counterproductive work behaviors, and low withdrawal behaviors) tend to be more appreciated by their teammates, which in turn helps to increase teamwork efficacy (Stoverink et al., 2018). In turn, enhanced team cooperation has been shown to contribute to increase the well-being of all team members (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

The only exception to these documented positive associations between more desirable work behaviors and psychological well-being at work comes from the report of small positive relations between presenteeism and employees' levels of work engagement and job satisfaction (Miraglia & Johns, 2016). This association seems to reflect the fact that presenteeism is sometimes used to avoid absenteeism among highly engaged or satisfied workers when they suffer from medical conditions (Miraglia & Johns, 2016). As a result, employees from the *Withdrawn* profile, especially when this profile is dominated by presenteeism, seem more likely to experience psychological well-being at work than members of the other less desirable profiles (*Deviant* and *Problematic*).

Once again, these previous results and theoretical considerations suggest reciprocal associations between employee's work behaviors and components of the psychological well-being, highlighting the value of these components correlates in documenting the construct validity of the work behaviors profiles. In this regard, support for the following hypothesis would be aligned with theoretical assumptions regarding the positive role of work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2019) and job satisfaction (Locke, 1976), while demonstrating that different combinations of work behaviors do indeed share well-differentiated associations with employees' hedonic and eudaimonic well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Hypothesis 3. Levels of psychological well-being at work (high job satisfaction and work engagement) should highest in the *Involved* profile, then in the *Average* one, followed by the *Withdrawn* one, and should be lowest in the *Deviant* and *Problematic* profiles.

Predictors of Work Behaviors Profiles

Emotional Dissonance. A core psychological mechanism underlying the five theoretical work behavior profiles proposed in this study is related to exposure to a workplace that matches (entirely: *Involved*; or partially: *Average* and *Withdrawn*), or not (*Deviant* and *Problematic*), employees' personal goals and values (Vleugels et al., 2019). Emotional dissonance thus represents a likely indicator of the extent to which employees' personal values converge, or not, with those of their organization. More precisely, emotional dissonance is typically defined as a perceived state of discrepancy between the emotions one is required to display at work and those that one truly experiences (Holman et al., 2002). Emotional dissonance thus tends to be experienced as a role conflict, resulting in higher levels of exhaustion and strain caused by the need to repress one's authentic emotions (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011). Our decision to focus on the predictive role of emotional dissonance is thus anchored in its central role in the emotional labor process and in its documented negative impact on employees' work behaviors and work functioning (Hülsheger & Schewe, 2011).

Because it thwarts the satisfaction of employees' basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017), emotional dissonance is expected to lead to a state of strain and frustration that may lead to the adoption of counterproductive work behaviors to reciprocate for this source of frustration (Robinson & Demaree, 2007). However, in addition to this more obvious effect, emotional dissonance is also a job demand (Zapf et al., 1999) requiring effortful regulation likely to disrupt concentration, increase feelings of work overload, and interfere with work recovery (Van Laethem et al., 2018). By acting to deplete employees' psychological resources, emotional dissonance thus makes it harder for employees to expand these resources to maintain a high level of performance (Bakker & Heuven, 2006), and may even lead them to rely on higher levels of absenteeism or presenteeism as a way to recover (Diestel & Schmidt, 2011; Gillet et al., 2020a). Support for the following hypothesis would thus be aligned with various theoretical assumptions related to the negative role of job demands (Demerouti et al., 2009) and psychological need thwarting (Ryan & Deci, 2017) for employees' behaviors, while demonstrating that emotional dissonance may share well-differentiated associations with distinct combinations of work behaviors.

Hypothesis 4. Higher levels of emotional dissonance will predict a higher likelihood of membership into the *Problematic* and *Deviant* profiles in comparison to the other profiles, and into the *Average* and *Withdrawn* profiles compared to the *Involved* one.

Social Support Perceptions. Any consideration of job demands, such as those created by emotional dissonance, is incomplete without the consideration of job resources (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Employees' perceptions of organizational support (i.e., referring to their feelings that their organization values their contribution and cares about them) represents an important job resource and a key determinant of desirable work behaviors (Kurtessis et al., 2017). However, organizations are complex entities involving multiple constituencies (Morin et al., 2011b), such as the supervisors and colleagues, with whom workers share relationships distinct than those shared with their organization (Stinglhamber et al., 2002). This recognition has led to an extension of organizational support theory to consider the complementary role of employees' perceptions of supervisor and colleagues support (i.e., feelings that their colleagues and/or supervisor value their contribution and care about them; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). These three sources of social support are taken into consideration in the present study in order to account for at least part of the rich social reality of workplaces, as well as to account for their well-documented associations with various adaptive personal (e.g., well-being, work-family balance) and organizational (e.g., work performance) outcomes (Caesens et al., 2020, 2021).

Organizational support theory relies on the norm of reciprocity and social exchange theory to explain the effects of workplace support perceptions on work behaviors (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). More precisely, support perceptions should lead workers to view favorable actions from their colleagues, supervisor, and organization as a proof of commitment toward them (Kurtessis et al., 2017). These perceptions should then stimulate a need to reciprocate by assisting support providers to attain their goals through various types of work behaviors (Eisenberger et al., 1986). By facilitating the fulfillment of workers' socioemotional needs, support perceptions also directly contribute to work behaviors by increasing performance, and decreasing their levels of absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2017; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Support for the following hypothesis would thus be aligned with theoretical assumptions related to the positive role of job resources (Crawford et al., 2010) and organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), while demonstrating that employees' perceptions of colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support share differentiated associations with distinctive combinations of work behaviors.

Hypothesis 5. Higher levels of perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support will predict a higher likelihood of membership into the *Involved* profile relative to all other profiles, as well as into the *Average* profile relative to the *Withdrawn*, *Deviant*, and *Problematic* profiles.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Targeting a general population of French workers from different sectors, a paper-based questionnaire was distributed to two convenience samples of 431 (140 men; 291 women) and 553 (223 men; 330 women) employees recruited independently from different French organizations (e.g., industries, public hospitals,

sales and services). Participants received a cover letter explaining the objectives of the study, a consent form highlighting the voluntary and anonymous nature of their participation, and the questionnaire. After completion, questionnaires were returned to the members of the research team in charge of data collection. Participants received no incentive and took roughly 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire in Sample 1, relative to 15 minutes in Sample 2.

On the average, Sample 1 participants had a tenure of 6.30 years (*SD* = 6.82) in their current position and of 8.98 years (*SD* = 9.37) in their organization, and were aged between 18 and 64 years (*M* = 35.75, *SD* = 12.32). In total, 95 participants had a temporary position (22.0%), 336 had a permanent position (78.0%), and 347 worked full-time (80.5%). Finally, 209 participants had a university diploma (48.5%), 116 had a high school diploma (26.9%), 91 had a vocational training certificate (21.1%), and 15 (3.5%) had no diploma.

On the average, Sample 2 participants had a tenure of 6.25 years (*SD* = 7.99) in their current position and of 9.41 years (*SD* = 10.17) in their organization, and were aged between 18 and 69 years (*M* = 38.18, *SD* = 12.56). In total, 126 participants had a temporary position (22.8%), 427 had a permanent position (77.2%), and 485 worked full-time (87.7%). Finally, 259 participants had a university diploma (46.8%), 161 had a high school diploma (29.1%), 119 had a vocational training certificate (21.5%), and 14 (2.5%) had no diploma.

Measures

All measures in the questionnaire were previously validated and administered in French. Validity and reliability of the French version of these measures are similar to those of the original version and have been supported in prior studies (Caesens et al., 2020; Fouquereau et al., 2019; Gillet et al., 2017c, 2021, 2022; Huyghebaert et al., 2018a, c; Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2021; Sandrin et al., 2019b, 2020).

Presenteeism (Samples 1 and 2). Presenteeism during the past month was assessed using the Stanford Presenteeism Scale (Koopman et al., 2002; French version by Huyghebaert et al., 2018b; six items; e.g., "*Because of my health problems, the stresses of my job were much harder to handle*"; α = .94 in Sample 1 and α = .95 in Sample 2). Participants responded using a five-point Likert-scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).

Counterproductive Work Behaviors (Samples 1 and 2). Counterproductive work behaviors were measured using five items focusing on social interactions (Spector et al., 2010; French version by Fouquereau et al., 2019; α = .67 in Sample 1 and α = .72 in Sample 2; e.g., "Insulted someone about their job performance"). Items were rated using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (every day).

Absenteeism (Samples 1 and 2). One item asking workers to report the number of entire work days missed during the last year because of problems related to their physical or mental health (Kessler et al., 2003; French version by Sandrin et al., 2020) was used to assess absenteeism.

Performance (Samples 1 and 2). One item (i.e., "How would you rate your overall job performance on the days you worked during the past four weeks") was used to assess work performance (Kessler et al., 2003; French version by Sandrin et al., 2019b). Responses were indicated on a scale from 0 (worst performance) to 10 (best performance).

Emotional Dissonance (Sample 1). The Frankfurt Emotion Work Scale (Zapf et al., 1999; French version by Gillet et al., 2017c) was used to assess emotional dissonance (five items; α = .83; e.g., "Having to show certain feelings that do not correspond with the way I feel at that moment"). Items were rated on a five-point scale (1-never to 5-always).

Perceived Organizational, Supervisor, and Colleagues Support (Sample 1). The same four items from the short form (Caesens et al., 2014) of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986; French version by Caesens et al., 2020) were used to measure employees' perceptions of organizational (α = .72; e.g., "My organization really cares about my well-being"), supervisor (α = .77; e.g., "My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work"), and colleagues (α = .73; e.g., "My colleagues really care about my well-being") support. Each item was rated using a seven-point scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree".

Sleeping Difficulties (Sample 1). Sleeping difficulties during the past four weeks were assessed using four items (Jenkins et al., 1988; French version by Gillet et al., 2018; α = .90). Each item (i.e., "difficulty

falling asleep", "difficulty staying asleep", "waking up several times per night", and "waking up feeling tired and worn out after the usual amount of sleep") was rated using a six-point response scale (1-Not at all; 2-1 to 3 days; 3-4 to 7 days; 4-8 to 14 days; 5-15 to 21 days; and 6-22 to 28 days).

Psychological Detachment (Sample 1). Following a common stem (i.e., "In the evening, after work, and when I am on a weekend/vacation…"), four items (α = .91; e.g., "I forget about work"; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; French version by Huyghebaert et al., 2018a) were used to assess psychological detachment. These items were rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Work Engagement (Sample 2). The short form of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-3; Schaufeli et al., 2019; French version by Huyghebaert et al., 2018c) was used to measure work engagement (3 items; α = .77; e.g., "I am immersed in my work"). These items were rated using a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

Job Satisfaction (Sample 2). One item (i.e., "Are you generally satisfied with your job"; Shimazu et al., 2015; French version by Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2021) was used to assess job satisfaction. Responses were given on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (dissatisfied) to 4 (totally satisfied).

Analyses

Preliminary Analyses

To identify the profiles and analyze their associations with the predictors and correlates, we relied on factor scores saved as part of preliminary measurement models (for further information on the benefits of using factor scores, see Meyer & Morin, 2016). Information on these preliminary measurement models, their equivalence across samples (i.e., measurement invariance), composite reliability, and variable correlations are reported in the online supplements (see Tables S1 to S6). These factor scores were saved from a model of latent means invariance to maximize the cross-sample comparability of our measures.

Person-Centered Analyses

Our analyses relied on Mplus 8's (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) Maximum Likelihood Robust (MLR) estimator. In each sample, latent profile analyses (LPA) solutions including one to eight profiles were estimated allowing the means and variances of the four work behaviors indicators (absenteeism, performance, presenteeism, and counterproductive behaviors) to be estimated freely across profiles (Peugh & Fan, 201), and using 5000 random sets of start values, 200 final optimizations, and 1000 iterations (Hipp & Bauer, 2006). We increased these values to 10000, 500, and 1000 for the multi-sample analyses. In Sample 2, the class enumeration process had to stop after the six-profile solution, as solutions including additional profiles were unable to converge, supporting the idea that fewer than seven profiles were present in this sample. Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML; Enders, 2010) was used to handle the limited missing responses (0%-1.16% in Sample 1 and 0%-0.72% in Sample 2).

The optimal solution was selected through a consideration of its statistical adequacy, meaningfulness, theoretical conformity, and guided by statistical indicators (Morin & Litalien, 2019). More precisely, lower values on the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), the sample-size Adjusted BIC (ABIC), the Akaïke Information Criterion (AIC), and the Consistent AIC (CAIC) suggest a better solution, while a statistically significant adjusted Lo, Mendell, and Rubin's (2001) Likelihood Ratio Test (aLMR) and Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT) support the value of a solution relative to one including one fewer profile. Statistical research shows that the CAIC, BIC, ABIC, and BLRT are generally useful, whereas the AIC and aLMR are not (Diallo et al., 2016, 2017; Peugh & Fan, 2013). These indicators are thus reported only to ensure transparency but are not used in model assessment. A recent simulation study showed that the ABIC and BLRT should be favored when entropy is low (≤ .500; corresponding to a low class separation or classification accuracy), whereas the BIC and CAIC perform better when it is high (≥ .800; corresponding to a high class separation or classification accuracy) (Diallo et al., 2017). Because their sample-size dependency, these indicators often fail to converge on a specific solution (Marsh et al., 2009). When this happens, a graphical display (elbow plot) can be used to identify where the decrease in the value of these indicators reaches a plateau (Morin et al., 2011a). Once the optimal solution has been identified in each sample, these two sample-specific solutions were combined in a multigroup model to conduct sequential tests of profile similarity (Morin et al., 2016). In these tests, at least two indices out of the BIC, ABIC, and CAIC should be lower for the more "similar" model to support profile similarity (Morin et al., 2016).

The start values from the final, most similar, multigroup solution were then used (rather than using random starts) to ensure that this solution would be replicated in all remaining analyses involving predictors and outcomes (Morin & Litalien, 2019). Predictors and demographic controls were first incorporated in Sample 1 using a multinomial logistic regression link function. As an additional test of generalizability, we then verified whether the effects of the demographic controls (available in both samples) would be replicated across samples. For this verification, two alternative multi-group models were compared (Morin et al., 2016). In one model, the associations between the demographic controls and the profiles were estimated freely across samples. In the other model, these associations were set to be equal across samples (*predictive* similarity).

Correlates (psychological detachment and sleeping difficulties in Sample 1, and job satisfaction and work engagement in Sample 2) were then directly incorporated, in each sample separately, to a LPA solution corresponding to the most similar multigroup solution. Profiles were contrasted in relation to correlates levels using the Auxiliary (DCON) approach (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014; Lanza et al., 2013).

Results

Latent Profile Solutions

Results from the sample-specific LPA solutions are presented in Table 1. In Sample 1, the results revealed a high entropy (.869 to .979), indicating that the CAIC and BIC could be favored (Diallo et al., 2017). In Sample 1, the BIC reached its lowest point at seven profiles and the CAIC at six profiles. In Sample 2, both indices were lowest at four profiles. In contrast, the BLRT and ABIC failed to support any specific solution in both samples. In the online supplements, Figures S1 (Sample 1) and S2 (Sample 2) suggested a plateau in the decrease of the value of these indicators at three to four profiles. The fact that solutions failed to converge after the six-profile solution in this sample serves to reinforce the fact that fewer than seven profiles are present in this sample. Solutions ranging from three to six (Sample 2) or seven (Sample 1) profiles were therefore more thoroughly inspected. Solutions were statistically proper up to the six-profile solution, and appeared quite similar across samples, thus providing early evidence of *configural* similarity. In addition, each new profile represented a meaningful addition to the solution up to five profiles in both samples, whereas the sixth profile only revealed a non-informative division of one already identified profile into smaller ones (corresponding to less than 15 employees) presenting a similar shape. Therefore, the five-profile solution was selected across samples.

The results from the sequential tests of profile similarity are reported in Table 2. Starting from the first model of *configural* similarity, the solution of *structural* similarity resulted in lower BIC, ABIC, and CAIC values and was thus supported by the data. Likewise, the solution of *dispersion* similarity led to further decreases in the values of the BIC, ABIC, and CAIC, and was thus also supported. Finally, the solution of *distributional* similarity was also supported by additional decreases in the values of the BIC, ABIC, and CAIC. This model of *distributional* similarity (consistent with the identification of profiles presenting the same shape, variability and size across samples) was thus selected as the final solution. This solution is graphically presented in Figure 1, and exact estimates are reported in Table S7 of the online supplements. As shown in Table S8 of the online supplements, this solution displayed a high classification accuracy (ranging from 86.8% to 99.5%) in both samples.

Profile 1 characterized employees with moderately low absenteeism and performance, moderately high presenteeism, and high counterproductive behaviors. This *Deviant-Presenteeism* profile represented 27.67% of the samples. Profile 2 characterized employees with moderately low absenteeism and performance, high presenteeism, and low counterproductive behaviors. This *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* profile represented 13.72% of the samples. Profile 3 characterized employees with close to average absenteeism and counterproductive behaviors, moderately low performance, and moderately high presenteeism. This *Average (Maladaptive)* profile represented 13.72% of the samples. Profile 4 characterized employees with low performance, very high absenteeism, high presenteeism, and moderately high counterproductive behaviors. This *Problematic* profile represented 6.05% of the samples. Finally, Profile 5 characterized employees with moderately low absenteeism and counterproductive behaviors, moderately high performance, and low presenteeism. This *Involved* profile represented 38.84% of the samples. The nature of the identified profiles thus provides partial support for Hypothesis 1.

Correlates of Profile Membership

Relations between the profiles and the correlates are presented in Table 3. In Sample 1, the highest sleeping difficulties were associated with the *Problematic* (4) profile, whereas the lowest were equally found in the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) and *Involved* (5) profiles, with the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1) and the *Average* (*Maladaptive*) (3) profiles falling in between. The lowest levels of psychological detachment were observed in the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1), *Average* (*Maladaptive*) (3), and *Problematic* (4) profiles, which did not differ from one another, whereas the highest levels were equally observed in the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) and *Involved* (5) profiles. These findings partially support Hypothesis 2.

In Sample 2, the *Involved* (5) and *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) profiles were associated with the highest levels of job satisfaction, whereas the lowest levels were associated with the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1), *Average (Maladaptive*) (3), and *Problematic* (4) profiles. Finally, the highest levels of work engagement were found in the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) and *Involved* (5) profiles, followed by the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1) and *Average (Maladaptive*) (3) profiles, with the lowest levels found within the *Problematic* (4) profile. These findings provide partial support for Hypothesis 3.

Predictors of Profile Membership

The results from the tests of predictive similarity conducted to verify whether the associations between the demographic controls and profile membership would be replicated across sample are reported in Table 2. These results support the model of predictive similarity, which resulted in lower values on the BIC, ABIC, and CAIC, thus reinforcing the generalizability of our results across samples. The results from these predictions are reported in Table 4, and revealed that sex, work time, and perceived colleagues support were all unrelated to profile membership. However, age predicted a lower likelihood of membership into the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) profile that in the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) and *Involved* (5) profiles. Higher levels of education also predicted a lower likelihood of membership into the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) and *Problematic* (4) profiles than in the *Involved* (5) profile, as well as a higher likelihood of membership into the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1) and *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) profiles relative to the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) and *Problematic* (4) profiles. Tenure in the position predicted a lower likelihood of membership into the *Involved* (5) profile than in the *Problematic* (4) profile. Perceived organizational support was associated with a higher likelihood of membership into the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) profile relative to the *High Deviant-Presenteeism* (1), *Problematic* (4), and *Involved* (5) profiles. In contrast, perceived supervisor support was associated with a lower likelihood of membership into the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) profile relative to the *Involved* (5) profile. Finally, emotional dissonance was associated with a higher likelihood of membership into the *Deviant-Presenteeism* (1), *Average (Maladaptive)* (3), and *Problematic* (4) profiles relative to the *Involved* (5) profile, as well as into the *Average (Maladaptive)* (3) and *Problematic* (4) profiles relative to the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism*) (2) profile. These results provide partial support for Hypotheses 4 and 5.

Discussion

The present study sought to achieve a more precise understanding of the way different profiles of workers rely on distinctive configurations of performance, absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors. Furthermore, we considered how these profiles are related to components of the work recovery process (i.e., sleeping difficulties and psychological detachment) and psychological well-being at work (i.e., job satisfaction and work engagement), as well as ways in which job resources (perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support) and demands (emotional dissonance) influence employees' membership into these profiles.

Profiling Employees' Work Behaviors

The main contribution of our study arguably lies in the validation of the theoretical work behaviors scenarios outlined in the introduction as a guide for future multidimensional research on work behaviors in France and worldwide. Indeed, our results revealed five distinct work behaviors profiles, which were perfectly replicated across two samples of employees. These profiles all corresponded perfectly (i.e., *Involved* and *Problematic*), or partially [i.e., *Deviant-Presenteeism, Average (Maladaptive)*, and *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*] to the scenarios outlined in the introduction (that can be applied to different samples of employees regardless of their country), thus partially supporting Hypothesis 1. As a result, these profiles

provide a novel theoretically-driven heuristic framework to help researchers achieve a more comprehensive understanding of work behaviors in France and worldwide. First, as expected, two profiles displayed converging levels of work behaviors. The *Involved* profile displayed high levels of performance and low levels on all undesirable work behaviors (i.e., absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors). In contrast, the *Problematic* profile presented high levels on all of the undesirable work behaviors, accompanied by low levels of performance.

Second, and also as expected, we identified a profile presenting close to average levels on all behaviors (i.e., similar to the theoretical *Average* scenario). However, this profile was slightly less adaptive than expected, presenting close to average levels of absenteeism and counterproductive behaviors, but moderately low levels of performance, and moderately high levels of presenteeism, leading us to label this profile *Average (Maladaptive)* to reflect this slight deviation from the theoretical scenario.

Third, and also matching our expectations, two additional profiles presented more clearly divergent levels of work behaviors. The first of those profiles corresponded to the *Withdrawn* scenario, and supported our suggestion that this profile would be more frequently dominated by presenteeism than by absenteeism, leading us to retain the label *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* to describe this profile. The second of those profile also seemed to match our expected *Deviant* scenario. However, like the *Average (Maladaptive)* and *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* profiles, this profile presented higher than expected levels of presenteeism, leading us to retain the label *Deviant-Presenteeism*. Rather than challenging the validity of the proposed theoretical scenario, these last three profiles rather suggest that presenteeism might be a more frequent component of undesirable behavioral profiles than an isolated sign of work withdrawal.

Our results thus suggest that the enacted behavioral repertoire of a substantial number of employees is fundamentally different than how it has been conceptualized in past studies relying on aggregated measures of withdrawal behaviors (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 2007) or considering behaviors in isolation in France and worldwide. Indeed, in addition to our identification of profiles matching – and thus supporting the existence of – the "good soldiers" (i.e., *Involved*) and "bad apples" (i.e., *Problematic*) image for nearly half of employees, the remaining half of our sample displayed a behavioral profile that did not match this overly simplistic representation. Thus, although research on work behaviors (e.g., Huyghebaert et al., 2018b; Sandrin et al., 2019a) has typically focused on one, or sometimes two, types of work behaviors, the profiles identified here emphasize the relevance of a finer-grained multidimensional operationalization of work behaviors. Importantly, our findings indicate that most employees routinely rely on a rich and diverse set of work behaviors, which cannot be adequately comprehended by the isolated consideration of specific behaviors. It is our hope that the current effort would contribute to more integrative research and theorization of work behaviors to override the piecemeal approach that has been used thus far in research in France and worldwide.

More generally, the identification of the same set of profiles across two independent samples of employees offers significant empirical support, albeit preliminary, to our proposed typology. However, because the present study offers the first empirical examination of this typology, it remains critical for future studies to replicate our results, in France and in other countries, to help differentiate the core set of profiles that will appear across most investigations from the occasional profiles that will only appear in some contexts (Meyer & Morin, 2016). To this end, future research should more extensively assess the situations, occupations, and professional settings which may lead to different work behaviors configurations. Furthermore, additional studies should expand on our findings by considering additional types of desirable work behaviors likely to further promote smooth organizational functioning (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors) in France and worldwide.

Demographic Characteristics of Employees' Work Behaviors Profiles

Although demographic characteristics were only considered as controls in our analyses, some observed associations helped to enrich our description of these profiles. Thus, more experienced workers were more likely to match the *Problematic* profile relative to the *Involved* one. Research has already shown that more experienced workers were more likely to develop risks of cardiovascular diseases (Hawkley et al., 2010), reduced motor skills (Vieluf et al., 2012), and health difficulties (Ng & Feldman, 2013). These health-related issues can lead to reduced performance (Brien et al., 2012), higher absenteeism (Magee et al., 2017), and

greater probability of having to keep working when sick (Demerouti et al., 2009). In addition, longer-tenured employees might develop less favorable perceptions of their work environment (Huang et al., 2006), leading them to accumulate stress in a way that might increase their frustration and likelihood of engaging in counterproductive work behaviors (Ng & Feldman, 2011). In contrast, education increased the likelihood of membership into the *Involved*, *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*, and *Deviant-Presenteeism* profiles relative to the *Problematic* and *Average (Maladaptive)* ones. These results suggest that it might be easier for educated employees to develop efficient strategies for handling their job duties and workload, possibly as a result of their greater expertise (Mohren et al., 2010), which in turn might help them to display an *Involved* profile, or at least a profile characterized by acceptable levels of job performance.

Work Recovery, Psychological Well-Being at Work, and Work Behaviors Profiles

Our findings partially supported Hypotheses 2 and 3 in showing the benefits of performance and the detrimental implications of absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors in terms of work recovery and well-being. Indeed, these results were consistent with the theoretical predictions of the stressor-detachment model (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015) and the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), and well-aligned with prior findings (Huyghebaert et al., 2018b; Van Laethem et al., 2019; Zhang & Deng, 2016). More precisely, work recovery and psychological well-being were at their lowest among *Problematic* employees, at their highest among *Involved* employees, with the *Deviant-Presenteeism* and *Average (Maladaptive)* employees falling in between these two extremes. However, whereas the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) led us to expect *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* employees to display a less efficient work recovery process and lower levels of well-being than *Involved* employees, these two profiles were indistinguishable from one another. This suggests that, when it occurs within an otherwise adaptive behavioral profile, presenteeism may represent an occasional coping mechanism to facilitate recovery and well-being (Miraglia & Johns, 2016). Alternatively, these results also suggest that adequate recovery and well-being might share stronger associations with low levels of absenteeism and counterproductive behaviors than with presenteeism and performance (Fouquereau et al., 2019).

Likewise, based on the stressor-detachment model (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), we expected work recovery (Hypothesis 2) and well-being (Hypothesis 3) to be higher in the *Average* profile relative to the other ones (save for the *Involved* one), and to be equivalent in the *Deviant* and *Problematic* profiles in terms of work recovery and close to one another in terms of well-being (although we expected the *Deviant* employees to display a slightly higher level of well-being than the *Withdrawn* employees). Contrasting with our expectations, the results rather showed that the current iteration of the *Average (Maladaptive)* and *Deviant-Presenteeism* profiles displayed similar levels of work recovery and well-being that fell in between the two extremes [*Involved* and *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* versus *Problematic*]. This second deviation from our expectations appears to be mainly related to the specific characteristics of our profiles. Indeed, the *Average (Maladaptive)* profile was found to be slightly less desirable than what was proposed in the *Average* theoretical scenario, whereas the high level of presenteeism noted in the *Deviant-Presenteeism* profile was also not covered in our scenarios and might have contributed to improve work recovery and well-being levels in this profile. These two profiles [*Average (Maladaptive)* and *Deviant-Presenteeism*] were even found to present levels of psychological detachment and job satisfaction that could not be differentiated from those observed in the *Problematic* one. These results are interesting in suggesting that moderately low to low levels of performance (which characterize these three profiles) might be involved in the difficulty to psychologically detach from work and in the experience of low satisfaction, irrespective of the presence of other types of less desirable work behaviors. Thus, not performing up to standards appears to lead, in and of itself, to challenges in terms of psychological detachment and job satisfaction. In contrast, although all of these moderately low to low performance profiles also experience their fair share of sleeping difficulties and low work engagement, sleeping difficulties seem to further increase and work engagement to further decrease when this moderately low to low performance occurs in the context of a more generalized workplace deviance profile (*Problematic*). This observation of effects that differ across distinct components of the work recovery and well-being processes highlights the importance for additional studies to consider other positive (e.g., affective commitment, information processing speed or attention) and negative (e.g., burnout) correlates to better document the mechanisms underlying these associations. They also highlight

the importance of considering work behaviors in combination, suggesting that each behavior may have distinct implications based on the context created by the other behaviors forming each profile.

Predictors of Employees' Work Behaviors Profiles

Finally, we examined the role of perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support as well as emotional dissonance in the prediction of employee membership in the various work behaviors profiles identified in the present research. These results partially supported Hypotheses 4 and 5. First, emotional dissonance was associated with membership in the *Deviant-Presenteeism*, *Average (Maladaptive)*, and *Problematic* profiles relative to the *Involved* one, and in the *Average (Maladaptive)* and *Problematic* profiles relative to the *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* one. With the exception of the *Average (Maladaptive)* profile, that was expected to be related to lower levels of emotional dissonance than the *Deviant-Presenteeism* and *Problematic* profiles, these results are consistent with the theoretical predictions of the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2009). These results also match prior findings revealing that emotional dissonance tends to be related to lower performance, and to foster less desirable work behaviors (Diestel & Schmidt, 2010; Miraglia & Johns, 2016). These associations are likely due to the activation of the psychophysiological systems linked to emotional dissonance, which disturbs work recovery (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Inadequate recovery makes it harder for employees to maintain performance, and more likely for them to rely on withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism, presenteeism) or to experience frustration leading to counterproductive work behaviors (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015).

Second, perceptions of supervisor support were related to an increased likelihood of membership into the *Involved* profile relative to the *Average (Maladaptive*) one. These results are consistent with the theoretical predictions of the job demands-resources model (Nielsen et al., 2017) and organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), and aligned with those from past studies showing that perceived supervisor support was associated with higher performance, and negatively related to less desirable work behaviors (Mazzetti et al., 2019; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). When we consider the unexpected non-significant differences between the *Involved* profile and the other profiles in relation to perceptions of supervisor support, they suggest that the efficacy of supervisor support to limit the expression of undesirable work behaviors might be limited to average levels of these behaviors and may not translate to profiles with a more pronounced configuration of undesirable work behaviors.

Third, to fully understand this relative lack of associations involving supervisor support, we need to consider the diametrically opposite effect of organizational support, which increased the likelihood of membership into the *Average (Maladaptive)* profile relative to the *Deviant-Presenteeism*, *Problematic*, and *Involved* ones. This difference suggests that the benefits of organizational support could be limited to reducing the likelihood of engaging in counterproductive work behaviors for low performing employees who do not belong to a highly *Problematic* profile. However, these results also indicate that organizational support should only be used cautiously, as it might also favor the emergence of *Average (Maladaptive)* relative to *Involved* employees. Although past studies have generally conceptualized organizational support as a predictor of positive work behaviors in a "the more, the better" perspective (Caesens et al., 2014), recent results suggest a more nuanced picture, suggesting that extreme levels of organizational support may be harmful (Caesens et al., 2020). Contrasting with the predictions of organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), this "too much of a good thing" interpretation matches prior findings of curvilinear associations between organizational support and employees' behaviors (e.g., performance and counterproductive behaviors: Harris & Kacmar, 2018). These studies have shown that the most positive work behaviors were related to moderate levels of organizational support. These unexpected results suggest that extremely high organizational support might push workers to believe that their organization questions their competence (Gillet et al., 2020b), leading to less adaptive behaviors.

Importantly, the effects of supervisor and organizational support are multivariate in nature, and thus reflect the effects of one component of support perceptions net of what they share with the other components. Caesens et al. (2020, 2021) showed that the three sources of social support are generally aligned for most workers. As shown in the correlation matrix (see Table S4 of the online supplements), perceived supervisor and organizational support share a correlation of .735, suggesting that the unexpected effect of supervisor support might in fact reflect discrepancies between both sources of support. In plainer

language, the unexpected influence of supervisor support could reflect a specific form of supervisor-employee alliance that occurs irrespective of the regular organizational support system, whereas the unexpected role of organizational support in decreasing the likelihood of membership in the *Involved* profile could reflect some form of employee-supervisor tension leading to discrepant perceptions of organizational and supervisor support. This possibility thus suggests that these unexpected effects could reflect either some form of systemic deviance stemming from employee-supervisor shared frustration directed at the organization, or employee-supervisor conflict. Additional studies are needed to assess whether these unexpected associations would generalize to other samples and situations, and then to better capture the mechanisms involved in these relations.

Despite these exceptions, the bulk of results suggests that the key, albeit limited, mechanism underpinning the benefits of workplace support perceptions in terms of workplace behaviors seems to transit via the supervisor, leaving only limited additional effects to organizational support perceptions and no additional effects related to colleagues support. Such findings are in line with past studies showcasing the need to differentiate between these sources of social support at work (e.g., Caesens et al., 2020, 2021; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) suggesting that, in relation to workplace behaviors, supervisor support seems to be critical. Future research should consider more attentively the mechanisms likely to be involved in the effects of social support, and to do so while considering distinct measures of support. Thus, even if perceived colleagues, supervisor, and organizational support are positioned as perceptual (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), they can still be influenced by self-report and social desirability biases. As such, combining perceptual measures, informant-reported measures, and objective measures of social support at work could be particularly fruitful. Moreover, additional studies should verify whether additional job and personal resources and demands might also differentially predict membership into the various work behaviors profiles such as, perhaps, workaholism, work motivation, job autonomy, and bullying (e.g., Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Sandrin et al., 2019a).

Limitations

Limitations have to be considered when examining the implications of our findings. For instance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and performance were each assessed with a single item to decrease survey length and participant fatigue. In the organizational sciences, it is seemingly an urban legend that to validly assess psychological constructs, researchers must use multi-item measures (e.g., Allen et al., 2022). Nevertheless, based on a large-scale evidence-based approach, Matthews et al. (2022) empirically demonstrated that various constructs in the organizational sciences can be reliably and validly assessed using a single item. For instance, in their first study, across 91 selected constructs, 71.4% of the single-item measures demonstrated strong if not very strong definitional correspondence (as a measure of content validity). More generally, 75 of the 91 focal measures (including measures identical, or highly similar, to ours) demonstrated very good or extensive validity, evidencing moderate to high content validity, no usability concerns, moderate to high test-retest reliability, and extensive criterion validity. In other words, Matthews et al. (2022) provided an off-the-shelf compendium of validated single-item measures. However, it would be informative to replicate our findings using more comprehensive measurement of job satisfaction, absenteeism, and performance. Although shared method biases are unlikely to play a role in multivariate analyses (as demonstrated mathematically by Siemsen et al., 2010), including person-centered analyses (Meyer & Morin, 2016), the fact that we relied solely on self-report measures increases the risk of other forms of social desirability and self-report biases. In this regard, it also important to note that, as recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003), we relied on several additional procedures to further reduce the risks associated with this type of methodological design: Protecting and ensuring respondent anonymity, reducing evaluation apprehension (e.g., by assuring respondents that there were no right or wrong answers, and that they should be as honest as possible without any risk of judgment), randomly counterbalancing the order of appearance of the questions, and avoiding item ambiguity by keeping questions simple, specific, and concise. However, to further alleviate these concerns related to self-reported measures, it would be interesting for future studies to consider the incorporation of objective measures (e.g., number of completed tasks as an indicator for work performance, workplace offenses included in official personnel records as an indicator for counterproductive work behaviors). Likewise, our positioning of covariables as predictors (i.e.,

perceived support, and emotional dissonance) or correlates (i.e., psychological detachment, sleeping difficulties, work engagement, and job satisfaction) was theoretically-anchored (e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015). However, our design and analyses did not allow us to assess spurious associations, reciprocal influence, reversed causality, or the role of profile membership in relation to changes in correlates. Additional studies should examine more systematically the direction of these relations through diary studies and longitudinal designs. With longitudinal research, it is also possible to consider within-person and within-sample profile stability (Gillet et al., 2017b).

Practical Implications

Pending replication, the present findings highlight the need for managers to be attentive to workers displaying low performance in combination with moderate to high absenteeism, presenteeism, and counterproductive work behaviors (i.e., the *Problematic* profile). Indeed, these employees were at risk of multiple difficulties (i.e., high sleeping difficulties and low work engagement). Similarly, the *Deviant-Presenteeism* and *Average (Maladaptive)* profiles were associated with the lowest psychological detachment. Interestingly, these profiles presented a combination of adaptive (e.g., moderately low levels of absenteeism for the *Deviant-Presenteeism* profile) and maladaptive behaviors (e.g., moderately low performance and moderately high to high presenteeism and counterproductive behaviors for the *Deviant-Presenteeism* profile). The present results highlight the relevance of considering how different work behaviors combine within profiles of workers rather to focus on isolated behaviors. For instance, presenteeism was not an issue for recovery and well-being at work when associated with moderately low to low absenteeism, counterproductive behaviors, and performance [*Withdrawn (Presenteeism)* profile].

Our findings also suggest that decreasing emotional dissonance, for instance through mindfulness techniques (Hülsheger et al., 2013), may be particularly helpful to enhance employees' work behaviors. Organizations could also train employees to communicate more efficiently with their supervisors, customers, coworkers, and shareholders. Indeed, appropriate communication can help to reduce emotional dissonance by facilitating the expression of one's true emotion in a more appropriate manner (Gillet et al., 2017c). More generally, by providing job resources to their employees (e.g., increasing job autonomy, offering opportunities to take a break), organizations may empower them and help them to truly experience the required emotions rather than being forced to fake them (Ortiz-Bonnin et al., 2021). Our results also highlight the importance of workplace support, and the benefits of fostering more positive support perceptions, especially from the supervisor, although all sources of support (i.e., colleagues, supervisor, and organization) tend to aligned for most workers (Caesens et al., 2020, 2021). In fact, the trickle-down effect indicates that social support tends to generalize across sources (e.g., Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), and previous studies have shown that perceived organizational support leads workers to believe that their organization wants them to be supportive of others (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). As a result, efforts to increase any source of workplace support are likely to generate widespread benefits. To achieve this goal, organizations could promote a supportive culture by implementing training and developmental programs, reducing workload, providing employees the resources needed to perform their job, and providing job security, fairness, and justice (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Yet, our results also suggest the need to be attentive to the emergence of discrepancies between supervisor and organization support perceptions, especially among low performing employees. Thus, interventions seeking to mainly increase perceived supervisor support will not be sufficient if they are not matched by efforts to globally increase the overarching support culture of the workplace (Caesens et al., 2021).

Authors' Note:

The data used in this study is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

All procedures followed were in accordance with the ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional and national) and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1964 and its later amendments. Informed consent was obtained from all participants for being included in the study.

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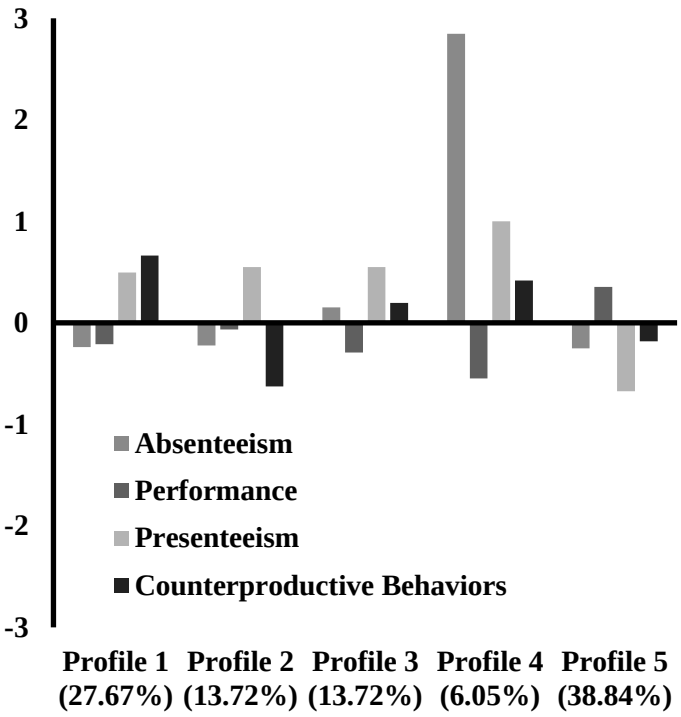

Figure 1. Final Five-Profile Solution

Note. Presenteeism and counterproductive behaviors are estimated from factor scores with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1; absenteeism and performance have been standardized prior to the analyses; Profile 1: *Deviant-Presenteeism*; Profile 2: *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*; Profile 3: *Average (Maladaptive)*; Profile 4: *Problematic*; Profile 5: *Involved*.

Table 1

Results from the Latent Profile Analysis Models

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy	aLMR	BLRT
Sample 1										
1 Profile	-2145.828	8	7.1849	4307.657	4348.167	4340.167	4314.780	Na	Na	Na
2 Profiles	-1427.544	17	2.9956	2889.087	2975.172	2958.172	2904.224	.986	< .001	< .001
3 Profiles	-1131.448	26	1.9130	2314.895	2446.554	2420.554	2338.055	.882	.003	< .001
4 Profiles	-1024.215	35	1.6871	2118.429	2295.662	2260.662	2149.592	.901	.043	< .001
5 Profiles	-958.562	44	1.4437	2005.124	2227.930	2183.930	2044.300	.926	.001	< .001
6 Profiles	-908.624	53	1.2964	1923.248	2191.628	2138.628	1970.437	.896	.030	< .001
7 Profiles	-879.627	62	1.1806	1883.255	2197.209	2135.209	1938.458	.891	.216	< .001
8 Profiles	-854.142	71	1.2632	1850.284	2209.813	2138.813	1913.501	.888	.404	< .001
Sample 2										
1 Profile	-2834.912	8	4.0654	5685.824	5728.347	5720.347	5694.952	Na	Na	Na
2 Profiles	-1642.643	17	2.4757	3319.285	3409.646	3392.646	3338.681	.975	< .001	< .001
3 Profiles	-1108.902	26	1.8003	2269.803	2408.003	2382.003	2299.467	.909	.001	< .001
4 Profiles	-1006.238	35	1.6631	2082.476	2268.513	2233.513	2122.408	.905	.092	< .001
5 Profiles	-990.691	44	2.0734	2069.381	2301.257	2259.257	2119.581	.921	.372	< .001
6 Profiles	-955.718	53	4.5283	2017.437	2299.151	2246.151	2077.905	.915	.014	< .001

Note. LL: Model LogLikelihood; #fp: Number of free parameters; Scaling: Scaling factor associated with MLR loglikelihood estimates; AIC: Akaïke Information Criteria; CAIC: Constant AIC; BIC: Bayesian Information Criteria; ABIC: Sample-size adjusted BIC; aLMR: Adjusted Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio test; BLRT: Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test; solutions stopped converging after six profiles in Sample 2.

Table 2

Fit Results from the Multi-Group Tests of Profile Similarity

	LL	#fp	SC	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy
Multi-Group Similarity: 5 Profiles								
Configural similarity	-2845.257	89	1.4518	5868.515	6392.779	6303.779	6021.113	.946
Structural similarity	-2707.462	69	1.7325	5552.924	5959.376	5890.376	5671.213	.927
Dispersion similarity	-2734.404	49	1.1939	5566.808	5855.448	5806.448	5650.823	.915
Distributional similarity	-2740.544	45	1.2193	5571.087	5836.164	5791.164	5648.243	.915
Demographic Predictors								
Effects freely estimated across samples	-2669.589	45	0.9959	5429.178	5694.072	5649.072	5506.151	.918
Predictive similarity	-2700.321	25	1.0039	5450.641	5597.804	5572.804	5493.404	.917

Note. LL = Loglikelihood; #fp = Number of free parameters; Scaling: Scaling correction factor; AIC = Akaïke information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; CAIC = Consistent AIC; ABIC = Sample-size adjusted BIC.

Table 3

Associations between Profile Membership and the Correlates

	Profile 1 M [CI]	Profile 2 M [CI]	Profile 3 M [CI]	Profile 4 M [CI]	Profile 5 M [CI]	Summary of Statistically Significant Differences
Sample 1						
Sleeping difficulties	.157 [-.002; .316]	-.325 [-.511; -.139]	.294 [.076; .512]	.879 [.587; 1.171]	-.198 [-.327; -.069]	4 > 1 = 3 > 2 = 5
Psychological detachment	-.222 [-.389; -.055]	.210 [.008; .412]	-.398 [-.623; -.173]	-.171 [-.465; .123]	.208 [.073; .343]	2 = 5 > 1 = 3 = 4
Sample 2						
Job satisfaction	2.957 [2.861; 3.053]	3.125 [2.986; 3.264]	2.887 [2.740; 3.034]	2.852 [2.585; 3.119]	3.224 [3.151; 3.297]	2 = 5 > 1 = 3; 5 > 4; 2 = 4
Work engagement	-.113 [-.246; .020]	.160 [-.048; .368]	-.198 [-.398; .002]	-.655 [-1.018; -.292]	.155 [.043; .267]	2 = 5 > 1 = 3 > 4

Note. M: Mean; CI: 95% Confidence Interval; indicators of sleeping difficulties, psychological detachment, and work engagement are estimated from factor scores with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1; Profile 1: *Deviant-Presenteeism*; Profile 2: *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*; Profile 3: *Average (Maladaptive)*; Profile 4: *Problematic*; Profile 5: *Involved*.

Table 4

Results from Multinomial Logistic Regressions for the Effects of the Predictors and Demographic Variables on Profile Membership

	Profile 1 vs. Profile 5		Profile 2 vs. Profile 5		Profile 3 vs. Profile 5		Profile 4 vs. Profile 5		Profile 1 vs. Profile 4	
	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR
POS	-.304 (.268)	.738	.283 (.308)	1.327	1.015 (.375)**	2.760	-.282 (.516)	.754	-.022 (.509)	.978
PSS	-.043 (.249)	.958	-.188 (.296)	.828	-.871 (.439)*	.419	-.512 (.483)	.599	.469 (.472)	1.599
PCS	.014 (.153)	1.014	.121 (.176)	1.128	-.071 (.217)	.931	-.105 (.308)	.900	.118 (.309)	1.126
DIS	.453 (.166)**	1.574	.219 (.195)	1.245	.864 (.221)**	2.373	.901 (.299)**	2.463	-.448 (.300)	.639
Sex	-.236 (.305)	.790	.153 (.346)	1.166	-.122 (.401)	.885	-.476 (.478)	.621	.240 (.480)	1.271
Age	-.345 (.181)	.708	-.532 (.244)*	.587	.119 (.235)	1.126	-.303 (.341)	.738	-.042 (.341)	.959
Education	-.238 (.173)	.788	-.172 (.205)	.842	-.749 (.214)**	.473	-.772 (.250)**	.462	.534 (.260)*	1.706
Work time	.345 (.339)	1.412	.168 (.409)	1.183	.015 (.496)	1.016	-1.565 (1.051)	.209	1.910 (1.079)	6.752
Tenure position	.497 (.225)	1.644	.378 (.257)	1.460	.268 (.226)	1.308	.932 (.303)**	2.540	-.435 (.263)	.647
	Profile 2 vs. Profile 4		Profile 3 vs. Profile 4		Profile 1 vs. Profile 3		Profile 2 vs. Profile 3		Profile 1 vs. Profile 2	
	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR
POS	.565 (.543)	1.759	1.297 (.595)*	3.659	-1.319 (.406)**	.267	-.732 (.456)	.481	-.587 (.335)	.556
PSS	.324 (.507)	1.382	-.359 (.622)	.698	.828 (.468)	2.289	.682 (.510)	1.979	.146 (.317)	1.157
PCS	.226 (.317)	1.253	.033 (.354)	1.034	.085 (.231)	1.089	.192 (.245)	1.212	-.107 (.181)	.898
DIS	-.682 (.318)*	.506	-.037 (.332)	.963	-.411 (.233)	.663	-.645 (.280)*	.525	.234 (.203)	1.264
Sex	.629 (.511)	1.876	.354 (.544)	1.425	-.114 (.436)	.892	.275 (.457)	1.317	-.389 (.377)	.677
Age	-.229 (.378)	.795	.422 (.376)	1.525	-.464 (.249)	.629	-.651 (.301)*	.521	.187 (.261)	1.206
Education	.601 (.285)*	1.823	.023 (.291)	1.023	.511 (.235)*	1.667	.577 (.274)*	1.781	-.066 (.227)	.936
Work time	1.733 (1.102)	5.656	1.580 (1.112)	4.857	.329 (.558)	1.390	.152 (.608)	1.164	.177 (.457)	1.194
Tenure position	-.554 (.311)	.575	-.664 (.275)	.515	.229 (.221)	1.257	.110 (.264)	1.116	.119 (.263)	1.126

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; SE: Standard Error of the coefficient; OR: Odds Ratio; POS: Perceived Organizational Support; PSS: Perceived Supervisor Support; PCS: Perceived Colleagues Support; DIS: Emotional Dissonance; indicators of POS, PSS, PCS, and DIS are estimated from factor scores with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1; age and tenure have been standardized prior to the analyses; sex: 0 male and 1 female; work time: 0 full time and 1 part time; the coefficients and OR reflects the effects of the predictors on the likelihood of membership into the first listed profile relative to the second listed profile; Profile 1: *Deviant-Presenteeism*; Profile 2: *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*; Profile 3: *Average (Maladaptive)*; Profile 4: *Problematic*; Profile 5: *Involved*.

Online Supplemental Materials for:

A Person-Centered Perspective on Work Behaviors

Preliminary Measurement Models

Preliminary estimation of the measurement models underlying all constructs assessed in the present study were conducted separately for the work-behavior variables (profile indicators) and for the predictors and correlates. These analyses were all conducted using Mplus 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) robust weight least square estimator (WLSMV) to account for the ordered-categorical nature of the Likert scales used in this study (Finney & DiStefano, 2013). A limitation of WLSMV, when compared to Maximum Likelihood, is a slightly less efficient way of handling missing data (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2010), which is not an issue here given the low level of missing data at the item level (0%-1.16% in Sample 1 and 0%-0.72% in Sample 2).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) representation of participants' levels of presenteeism and counterproductive behaviors was first estimated in each sample. Each item was only allowed to load on the factor it was assumed to measure, no cross-loadings were allowed, and both factors were allowed to freely correlate. We also verified that the measurement models operated in the same manner across samples through sequential tests of measurement invariance (Millsap, 2011). More precisely, we assessed: (1) configural invariance; (2) weak invariance (loadings); (3) strong invariance (loadings and intercepts); (4) strict invariance (loadings, intercepts, and uniquenesses); (5) invariance of the latent variance-covariance matrix (loadings, intercepts, uniquenesses, and latent variances and covariances); and (6) latent means invariance (loadings, intercepts, uniquenesses, latent variances and covariances, and latent means). Factor scores were saved from the most invariant model for the main analyses.

For the predictors and correlates, a six-correlated factors CFA model was specified to reflect participants' ratings of perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, perceived colleagues support, emotional dissonance, sleeping difficulties, and psychological detachment in Sample 1. This model also included an orthogonal method factor to control for the methodological artefact related to the negative wording of six of the items (Marsh et al., 2010), and a priori correlated uniquenesses were included to account for the strictly parallel wording of the items forming the three support subscales (Marsh et al., 2013; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). In Sample 2, a two-correlated factors CFA model was specified to reflect participants' ratings of perceived organizational support and work engagement. This model also included one a priori correlated uniqueness between the two inversed items measuring perceived organizational support.

Given the oversensitivity of the chi-square test of exact fit to sample size and minor misspecifications (Marsh et al., 2005), we relied on goodness-of-fit indices to describe the fit of the alternative models: The comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with its 90% confidence interval. According to typical interpretation guidelines (e.g., Marsh et al., 2005), values greater than .90 and .95 for the CFI and TLI respectively are considered to be indicative of adequate and excellent fit to the data, while values smaller than .08 or .06 for the RMSEA respectively support acceptable and excellent model fit. Like the chi-square, chi-square difference tests present a known sensitivity to sample size and minor model misspecifications so that recent studies suggest complementing this information with changes in CFIs and RMSEAs (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) in the context of tests of measurement invariance. A ΔCFI of .010 or less, a ΔTLI of .010 or less, and a ΔRMSEA of .015 or less between a more restricted model and the previous one support the invariance hypothesis. We report standardized parameter estimates and composite reliability coefficients calculated using McDonald (1970) omega (Morin et al., 2020):

$$\omega = \frac{(\sum|\lambda_i|)^2}{[(\sum|\lambda_i|)^2 + \sum \delta_i]}$$

where $|\lambda_i|$ are the standardized factor loadings in absolute values, and δi, the item uniquenesses.

Table S1 presents the goodness-of-fit indices of these measurement models. These results support the adequacy of the a priori CFA model underlying the work behaviors measure (with all CFI and TLI ≥ .95, and all RMSEA ≤ .08). This solution was thus retained for tests of measurement invariance. The results from these tests, reported in the bottom section of Table S1, supported the configural, weak, strong, strict, latent variance-covariance, and latent means invariance of the model. These results thus

show that the measurement models underlying work behaviors ratings can be considered to be fully equivalent across groups, leading to the estimation of similar constructs, and consistent with a lack of latent means differences across samples. Factor scores used in the main analyses were extracted from the final model of latent means invariance. Parameter estimates from this final model of latent means invariance are reported in Table S2.

For the predictors and correlates, results for Sample 1 are reported in Tables S3 (factors loadings and uniquenesses) and S4 (latent correlations). Results for Sample 2 are reported in Table S5 (factor loadings, uniquenesses, and latent correlations). Both solutions achieved a satisfactory fit to the data according to all goodness-of-fit indices. Factor scores for the person-centered analyses were thus extracted from these solutions.

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Table S1

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics of the Preliminary Measurement Models

Description	χ^2 (*df*)	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	90% CI	CM	$\Delta\chi^2$ (*df*)	ΔCFI	ΔTLI	ΔRMSEA
Sample 1										
Work behaviors	144.520 (43)*	.992	.990	.074	[.061; .088]	-	-	-	-	-
Predictors and correlates	959.960 (239)*	.949	.936	.084	[.078; .089]	-	-	-	-	-
Sample 2										
Work behaviors	93.164 (43)*	.997	.997	.046	[.033; .059]	-	-	-	-	-
Predictor and correlate	23.448 (12)*	.997	.995	.042	[.015; .066]	-	-	-	-	-
Multi-Group Tests of Invariance										
M1. Configural invariance	239.193 (86)*	.995	.994	.060	[.051; .069]	-	-	-	-	-
M2. Weak invariance	251.934 (95)*	.995	.995	.058	[.049; .067]	M1	8.928 (9)	.000	+.001	-.002
M3. Strong invariance	312.288 (126)*	.994	.995	.055	[.047; .063]	M2	66.906 (31)*	-.001	.000	-.003
M4. Strict invariance	329.661 (137)*	.994	.995	.053	[.046; .061]	M3	23.993 (11)*	.000	.000	-.002
M5. Latent variance-covariance invariance	274.906 (140)*	.996	.997	.044	[.036; .052]	M4	6.912 (3)	+.002	+.002	-.009
M6. Latent means invariance	294.205 (142)*	.995	.996	.047	[.039; .054]	M5	10.625 (2)*	-.001	-.001	+.003

Note. * $p < .05$; χ^2: Robust chi-square test of exact fit; *df*: Degrees of freedom; CFI: Comparative fit index; TLI: Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation; 90% CI: 90% confidence interval; CM: Comparison model; Δ: Change in fit relative to the CM.

Table S2

Standardized Factor Loadings (λ), Uniquenesses (δ), and Latent Correlation for the Preliminary Measurement Model for the Work Behaviors (Means Invariance)

Items	λ	δ
Presenteeism		
Item 1	.909	.175
Item 2	.903	.185
Item 3	.927	.140
Item 4	.908	.176
Item 5	.941	.114
Item 6	.908	.175
ω	.969	
Counterproductive behaviors		
Item 1	.650	.578
Item 2	.796	.367
Item 3	.639	.591
Item 4	.711	.495
Item 5	.815	.336
ω	.846	
Latent correlation	.185	

Note. λ: Factor loading; δ: Item uniqueness; ω: Omega coefficient of model-based composite reliability; the correlation was statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Table S3

Standardized Factor Loadings (λ) and Uniquenesses (δ) for the Predictors and Correlates (Sample 1)

Items	λ	δ
Organizational support		
Item 1	.917	.158
Item 2	.203	.648
Item 3	.812	.341
Item 4	.362	.203
ω	.796	
Supervisor support		
Item 1	.890	.207
Item 2	.570	.519
Item 3	.636	.596
Item 4	.633	.265
ω	.824	
Colleagues support		
Item 1	.721	.480
Item 2	.373	.680
Item 3	.902	.187
Item 4	.613	.343
ω	.801	
Emotional dissonance		
Item 1	.775	.399
Item 2	.642	.588
Item 3	.827	.316
Item 4	.829	.314
Item 5	.887	.212
ω	.896	
Sleeping difficulties		
Item 1	.857	.265
Item 2	.938	.120
Item 3	.934	.127
Item 4	.803	.355
ω	.935	
Psychological detachment		
Item 1	.912	.168
Item 2	.926	.142
Item 3	.841	.292
Item 4	.864	.253
ω	.936	

Note. λ: Factor loading; δ: Item uniqueness; ω: Omega coefficient of model-based composite reliability.

Table S4

Latent Factor Correlations between the Predictors and Correlates (Sample 1)

	Organizational support	Supervisor support	Colleagues support	Emotional dissonance	Sleeping difficulties	Psychological detachment
Organizational support	-					
Supervisor support	.735*	-				
Colleagues support	.178*	.223*	-			
Emotional dissonance	-.127*	-.049	-.063	-		
Sleeping difficulties	-.232*	-.213*	-.192*	.345*	-	
Psychological detachment	.038	.222*	.058	-.194*	-.488*	-

Note. * $p < .05$.

Table S5

Standardized Factor Loadings (λ), Uniquenesses (δ), and Latent Correlation for the Predictor and Correlate (Sample 2)

Items	λ	δ
Organizational support		
Item 1	.878	.228
Item 2	.539	.709
Item 3	.887	.214
Item 4	.474	.776
ω	.800	
Work engagement		
Item 1	.715	.511
Item 2	.849	.720
Item 3	.689	.474
ω	.749	
Latent correlation	.460	

Note. λ: Factor loading; δ: Item uniqueness; ω: Omega coefficient of model-based composite reliability; the correlation was statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Table S6

Correlations between all Variables Used in the Present Study

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Sample 1										
1. Absenteeism	-									
2. Performance	-.102*	-								
3. Presenteeism[1]	.317**	-.416**	-							
4. Counterproductive behaviors[1]	.179**	-.287**	.258**	-						
5. Organizational support[1]	-.135**	.263**	-.101*	-.200**	-					
6. Supervisor support[1]	-.091	.191**	-.141**	-.172**	.787**	-				
7. Colleagues support[1]	-.001	.096*	-.021	-.093	.253**	.336**	-			
8. Emotional dissonance[1]	.138**	-.207**	.175**	.204**	-.155**	-.052	-.049	-		
9. Sleeping difficulties[1]	.201**	-.433**	.226**	.346***	-.274**	-.232**	-.225**	.350**	-	
10. Psychological detachment[1]	.012	.197**	-.214**	-.247**	.063	.233**	.065	-.202**	-.531**	-
Sample 2										
1. Absenteeism	-									
2. Performance	-.118**	-								
3. Presenteeism[1]	.203**	-.210**	-							
4. Counterproductive behaviors[1]	.069	-.077	.167**	-						
5. Organizational support[1]	-.175**	.178**	-.163**	-.244**	-					
6. Work engagement[1]	-.205**	.270**	-.109*	-.222**	.537**	-				
7. Job satisfaction	-.072	.322**	-.206**	-.160**	.466**	.446**	-			

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; [1]: Indicators are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; absenteeism and performance have been standardized prior to the analyses.

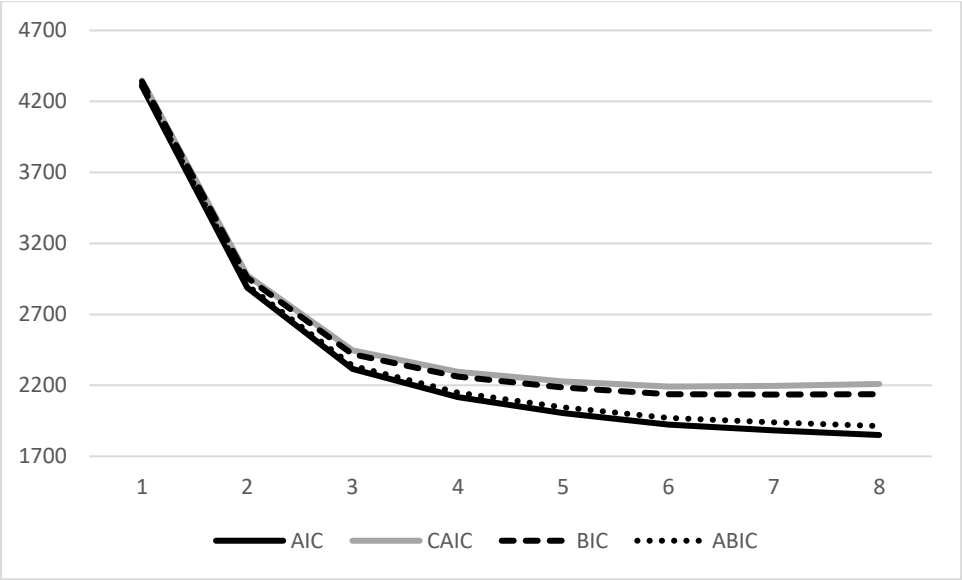

Figure S1
Elbow Plot of the Value of the Information Criteria for Solutions Including Different Numbers of Latent Profiles (Sample 1)

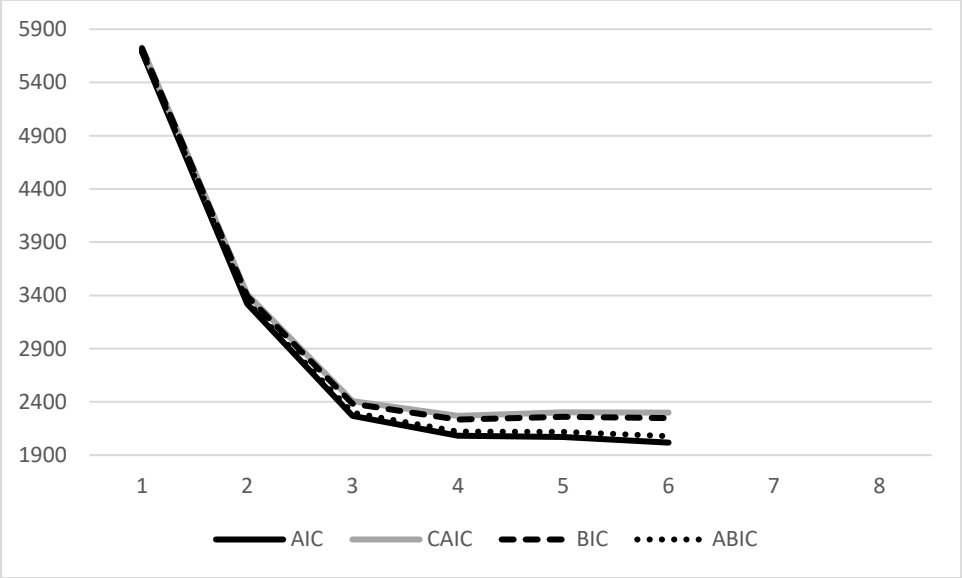

Figure S2
Elbow Plot of the Value of the Information Criteria for Solutions Including Different Numbers of Latent Profiles (Sample 2)

Table S7

Detailed Results from the Latent Profile Solution

	Profile 1 Mean [CI]	Profile 2 Mean [CI]	Profile 3 Mean [CI]	Profile 4 Mean [CI]	Profile 5 Mean [CI]
Absenteeism	-.240 [-.252; -.228]	-.224 [-.240; -.208]	.153 [.059; .247]	2.848 [1.950; 3.730]	-.251 [-.259; -.243]
Performance	-.209 [-.358; -.060]	-.066 [-.244; .112]	-.292 [-.527; -.057]	-.547 [-.957; -.137]	.355 [.261; .449]
Presenteeism[1]	.497 [.374; .620]	.550 [.438; .662]	.550 [.387; .713]	1.000 [.784; 1.216]	-.674 [-.680; -.668]
Counterproductive behaviors[1]	.663 [.565; .761]	-.628 [-.638; -.618]	.196 [.047; .345]	.416 [.179; .653]	-.182 [-.300; -.064]
	Profile 1 Variance [CI]	Profile 2 Variance [CI]	Profile 3 Variance [CI]	Profile 4 Variance [CI]	Profile 5 Variance [CI]
Absenteeism	.003 [.001; .005]	.006 [.004; .008]	.069 [.040; .098]	7.305 [2.674; 11.936]	.004 [.004; .004]
Performance	1.246 [.866; 1.626]	.911 [.705; 1.117]	.849 [.441; 1.257]	1.376 [.504; 2.248]	.616 [.471; .761]
Presenteeism[1]	.450 [.348; .552]	.228 [.177; .279]	.544 [.395; .693]	.572 [.345; .799]	.001 [.000; .000]
Counterproductive behaviors[1]	.479 [.387; .571]	.002 [.002; .002]	.421 [.305; .537]	.658 [.313; 1.003]	.360 [.262; .468]

Note. CI = 95% confidence interval; [1]: The profile indicators are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; absenteeism and performance have been standardized prior to the analyses; Profile 1: *Deviant-Presenteeism*; Profile 2: *Withdrawn* (*Presenteeism)*; Profile 3: *Average (Maladaptive)*; Profile 4: *Problematic*; Profile 5: *Involved*.

Table S8

Classification Accuracy: Average Probability of Membership into Each Latent Profile (Column) as a Function of the Most Likely Profile Membership (Row)

	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3	Profile 4	Profile 5
Sample 1					
Profile 1	.971	.000	.013	.014	.002
Profile 2	.000	.975	.000	.025	.001
Profile 3	.006	.000	.967	.019	.007
Profile 4	.000	.009	.000	.909	.082
Profile 5	.000	.000	.000	.005	.995
Sample 2					
Profile 1	.868	.000	.000	.112	.000
Profile 2	.000	.978	.007	.015	.000
Profile 3	.000	.003	.966	.031	.000
Profile 4	.012	.025	.015	.947	.000
Profile 5	.000	.001	.000	.018	.981

Note. For presenteeism and counterproductive behaviors, the profile indicators are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; absenteeism and performance have been standardized prior to the analyses; Profile 1: *Deviant-Presenteeism*; Profile 2: *Withdrawn (Presenteeism)*; Profile 3: *Average (Maladaptive)*; Profile 4: *Problematic*; Profile 5: *Involved*.