

Running Head: Multiple Commitments at Work

**Profiles of Global and Target-specific Work Commitments:
Why Compatibility is Better and How to Achieve it**

John P. Meyer*, Department of Psychology, The University of Western Ontario, Canada, and Curtin Business School, Curtin University, Australia

Alexandre J.S. Morin*, Substantive Methodological Synergy Research Laboratory, Department of Psychology, Concordia University, Montreal, Canada

Vincent Rousseau, School of Industrial Relations, Université de Montréal, Montreal, Canada

Jean-Sébastien Boudrias, Département de psychologie, Université de Montréal, Montreal, Canada

Eric Brunelle, HEC-Montreal, Montreal, Canada

* The first two authors (A.J.S.M. & J.P.M) contributed equally to this article and their order was determined at random: both should thus be considered first authors.

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Corresponding author:

Alexandre J.S. Morin

Substantive-Methodological Synergy Research Laboratory

Department of Psychology, Concordia University

7141 Sherbrooke W, Montreal, QC, Canada, H3B 1R6

Email: alexandre.morin@concordia.ca

<http://smslabstats.weebly.com/>

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Abstract

Employees can develop multiple commitments at work. These commitments can combine in different ways, with implications for organizations and employees themselves. In this study we conducted latent profile analyses (LPA) to identify different configurations of commitment to the organization, supervisor, work group, and citizens among a sample of employees from a police organization (N = 2090). The LPA were estimated while differentiating between employees' global and target-specific commitments in accordance with Perreira et al.'s (2018) hierarchical model of commitment. We identified six profiles, which demonstrated differential relations with theoretical antecedents (organizational support and values fit) and outcomes (turnover intention, organizational citizenship behavior, and well-being). The optimal profile from an outcome perspective was characterized by a strong global commitment accompanied by balanced above-average commitments to the four specific targets. Employees with this profile also reported the greatest support and values fit. The remaining profiles with lower global commitment and differentiated commitments to specific targets demonstrated more varied relations with both the antecedents and outcomes. Implications for theory pertaining to the compatibility and combined effects of multiple commitments are discussed along with implications for management.

Keywords. Multiple commitments; organizational support; values fit; well-being; turnover intention; organizational citizenship behaviors; latent profile analysis, hierarchical model, bifactor.

It has long been recognized that employees can commit not only to their organizations, but also to multiple social constituencies (targets) within the organization, including supervisors, work teams, and customers/clients (Becker, 1992; Morrow, 1993; Reichers, 1985). Each of these commitments can have important implications in their own right, but their full impact is arguably best understood by considering them in combination. Indeed, various theoretical propositions have been offered to explain how multiple commitments combine and interact to influence important outcomes (Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Until recently, these theoretical propositions have largely been tested using a variable-centered approach (e.g., Becker et al., 1996; Becker & Kernan, 2003; Boshoff & Mels, 2000; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Morin, Vandenberghe, et al., 2011), but there has been a recent increase in the use of person-centered techniques (e.g., Cooper et al., 2016; Meyer et al., 2015, 2019; Morin et al., 2015; Morin, Morizot, et al., 2011). The person-centered approach relaxes the assumption that the sampled population is homogenous and can be characterized by a common set of parameters. Rather, it considers the possibility that the population might be heterogeneous, so that the variables of interest (e.g., multiple commitments) can combine differently across subpopulations. Moreover, by considering employees' profiles rather than individual variables as the unit of analysis, it allows for a more holistic understanding of how the combinations of variables relate to important outcomes. Consequently, one of the advantages of the person-centered approach is that it accounts for the possibility that even competing theoretical propositions regarding how commitments combine and relate to other variables may be true for different subpopulations.

An important issue that has arisen recently in person-centered research is how to account for the shared variance (i.e., correlations) among the variables of interest when this shared variance itself is substantively meaningful (Morin, Boudrias et al., 2016, 2017; Morin & Marsh, 2015). Indeed, there is growing evidence that the profile structure involving correlated variables can vary depending on whether this theoretically meaningful commonality is ignored (using typical latent profile analysis: LPA), controlled (using factor mixture analysis: FMA; Morin & Marsh, 2015), or explicitly modelled by applying LPA to the global and specific factors obtained from an a priori bifactor analysis (Morin, Boudrias et al., 2016, 2017). For example, Morin, Boudrias et al. (2017) found that modeling a global psychological well-being factor to account for the theoretical commonalities among five dimensions of psychological well-being provided a far more interpretable, and accurate, profile solution than ignoring this commonality, or controlling for it. The benefits of this approach have also been demonstrated in recent research in other domains such as need satisfaction (Gillet et al. 2019), job engagement (Gillet et al., 2020), and psychological health (Morin et al., 2016).

Within the multiple-commitments literature, Morin, Morizot, et al. (2011) found that controlling for employees' global levels of affective commitment across commitment targets using FMA produced more interpretable profiles than did ignoring it with a more traditional LPA. However, to our knowledge, no other attempts have been made to account for this commonality in person-centered commitment research. Morin and colleagues (2016, 2017; Morin & Marsh; 2015) argue that the decision to ignore, control, or model this global commitment factor in LPA should be based on theory and evidence regarding the factor structure of the variables of interest. Perreira et al. (2018) have recently demonstrated that a bifactor measurement structure provided the most appropriate representation of their short form of the Workplace Affective Commitment Multidimensional Questionnaire (WACMQ-S), and fully matched their a priori hierarchical conceptualization of the multiple commitments. This hierarchical representation suggests that employees' commitment to multiple work-related targets should be best represented by two independent components, one reflecting their global levels of commitment to their work-life (encompassing all targets of commitment), and another reflecting the unique specificities associated with their commitment to each target. In the present study, we adopt this perspective and focus on employees' commitment to four targets (organization, supervisor, workgroup, clients) assessed using the WACMQ-S.

In sum, our study moves beyond the traditional variable-centered approach to investigating multiple workplace commitments to allow for the possibility that these commitments can combine in different ways. It extends the few existing person-centered studies by disaggregating global from target-specific variance that, when confounded, can lead to misrepresentation and misinterpretation of the profile structure. Finally, by acknowledging distinct patterns of global and target-specific commitments we are better able to test theory pertaining to the development and consequences of commitment.

Importantly, we can investigate whether treating a sample of employees as heterogeneous can help to reconcile competing theories regarding the compatibility and combined effects of multiple commitments.

Multiple Targets of Commitment: Theory and Research

Commitment Mindsets and Targets

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 299) defined commitment as a “force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets.” Moreover, they argued that, regardless of the target, this binding force can be experienced as an emotional attachment (affective commitment), obligation (normative commitment), or need (continuance commitment). Addressing multiple mindsets associated with multiple targets of work-relevant commitments in variable- or person-centered research is computationally demanding. Consequently, researchers have typically focused on interactions or profiles involving commitment mindsets (e.g., Gellatly et al., 2006; Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2012, 2018) *or* commitments to multiple targets (e.g., Becker & Billings, 1993; Cooper et al., 2016; Morin, Morizot et al., 2011; Swailes, 2004). Relatively few studies have considered multiple mindsets and targets together, and these studies have generally been limited to two targets (the organization and the supervisor: Meyer et al., 2015; the organization and the occupation: Meyer et al., 2019; Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbris & Xenikou, 2010). In the present research, following from Morin, Morizot et al. (2011), we address this ‘bandwidth-fidelity dilemma’ by focusing on profiles of affective commitment to multiple targets. Affective commitment is the most widely studied of the commitment mindsets and has generally demonstrated the most positive relations with employee behavior and well-being (Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

Recognizing that organizations encompass multiple social constituencies to which employees can commit raises two important issues. The first has to do with compatibility versus conflict among these commitments (Becker, 1992; Morrow, 1993; Reichers, 1985). For example, can employees have strong commitments to multiple targets, or does a strong commitment to one target necessitate weaker commitments to the other targets? The second issue has to do with the ways in which commitments to multiple targets combine to influence behaviors or other outcomes (Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997). For example, are the effects of commitments to different targets complementary, synergistic, or competitive? Although both issues have been addressed in variable-centered research, the person-centred approach is naturally suited to these considerations, as we explain below.

Compatibility versus Conflict

From a variable-centered perspective, if commitments to different targets are compatible, we would expect them to correlate positively with one another. In contrast, when commitments conflict, we would expect negative correlations. Meta-analyses consistently reveal weak to moderate positive correlations between commitments to different targets (e.g., Cooper-Hakim & Viswevaran, 2005; Lee & Allen, 2000). This suggests that, while generally compatible, commitments to different targets might be independent or in conflict for some employees. If this is the case, then a person-centered approach should make it possible to identify different configurations of commitments across targets.

Becker and Billings (1993) were among the first to adopt such an approach. They conducted a cluster analysis of commitment to four targets and identified four profiles: committed (all targets), globally committed (top management and organization), locally committed (supervisor and work group), and uncommitted. Swailes (2004) replicated these findings in one sample but obtained only partial replication in another. In the second sample, he identified two additional profiles, one reflecting commitment to the supervisor only and one reflecting commitment to the workgroup only. These findings provided preliminary evidence that compatibility and conflict can co-exist within samples.

Two more recent studies were conducted using LPA to provide a more accurate model-based specification (Meyer & Morin, 2016). In one of those studies, Cooper et al. (2016) measured commitment to the organization, profession, supervisor, and job in two samples of Finnish employees, one working with standard employment arrangements and the other with fixed-term arrangements. For employees with standard employment, they identified three profiles differing primarily in elevation. The shape of the profiles was similar across profiles with commitment to the profession and job being generally stronger than commitment to the organization and supervisor, and this configuration was simply more or less elevated across profiles. Four profiles were identified for employees with fixed employment arrangements, and one of these profiles was slightly more differentiated in shape. That is, they identified a ‘cosmopolitan’ profile (Gouldner, 1958) with very high scores on commitment to the

profession and job and considerably lower scores on commitment to the organization and profession. However, the other profiles remained primarily similar in shape.

Morin, Morizot et al. (2011) measured affective commitment to seven targets (organization, supervisor, work group, job, career, work, and customers). As noted previously, they conducted FMA to control for employees' global levels of commitment across seven targets. They identified five profiles with distinctive patterns of high and low scores (i.e., shape): moderately committed, supervisor-committed, career-committed, workplace-committed, and uncommitted. Although comparison with Copper et al.'s (2016) findings is difficult given the differences in commitment targets, Morin, Morizot et al. (2011) found that FMA provided a better fit and more interpretable profiles than LPA using the same data, which also mainly resulted in profiles differing mainly in elevation). Therefore, these findings seem to support the benefits of accounting for global levels of commitment shared across targets. Ignoring this global level of commitment, which then becomes distributed across all targets, is likely to exaggerate differences in elevation and likely to mask differences in shape (Morin, Boudrias., 2016, 2017; Morin & Marsh, 2015). It would thus be difficult to detect compatibility and conflict among commitments without first accounting for these global levels.

Despite their differences, the results of these person-centered studies provide convincing evidence that commitments to multiple targets can combine in various ways. However, without modeling both the global and target-specific variance in multiple commitment, we do not yet have a clear picture of how these distinct sources of variance are likely to manifest in investigations of profile structure. As we note in the following section, this can also have important implications for our understanding of the combined effects of multiple commitments.

Combined Effects of Commitments to Multiple Targets

Theory pertaining to the combined effects of multiple commitments take two distinct, albeit related, forms. The first addresses the contribution of commitment to local targets (e.g., supervisor; work group) relative to that of commitment to the organization to the prediction of important outcomes (e.g., Hunt & Morgan, 1994). The second focuses on the different ways that multiple commitments can interact to influence these outcomes (e.g., Johnson et al., 2009).

Organizational Commitment as Primary or 'One of Many'

Hunt and Morgan (1994) proposed and tested two competing models. In the first model, commitment to the organization is considered *one of many independent commitments* that help to explain behavior. In the second, it is viewed as a *key mediator* of the effects of commitments to other targets on these same outcomes (i.e., the effects of commitment to other internal targets are channeled through their effects on organizational commitment). Although their findings supported the key-mediator model, subsequent studies found evidence for independent direct effects (Becker, Billings, Eveleth, & Gilbert, 1996; Boshoff & Mels, 2000), partial mediation (Maertz, Mosley, & Alford, 2002), or a combination of direct and partially mediated effects (Morin, Vandenberghe et al., 2011).

Complementarity versus Synergy versus Competition

Johnson et al. (2009) proposed that commitments to multiple targets and mindsets can interact to influence relevant outcomes. Moreover, he argued that the interaction can take three distinct forms: compensatory (i.e., a high level on a single type of commitment is sufficient to bring about desirable outcomes), synergistic (i.e., different types of commitments have non-redundant multiplicative effects), and competitive (i.e., high levels on multiple types of commitments work against each other). Their own study focused on interactions among commitment mindsets and provided evidence for complementarity in the prediction of turnover intention, and synergy in the case of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) and strain. They did not detect evidence for competitive effects but suggested this as a possibility for research involving commitments to different targets. Indeed, all three forms of interaction are possible among commitments to different targets. For example, strong affective commitment to a workgroup might be sufficient to reduce turnover even when commitment to the organization is weak (compensation). Similarly, the effect of organizational commitment on OCB directed at the organization might be strengthened by commitment to the supervisor if their values are congruent (synergy) but might be weakened if their values are incongruent (competition).

Toward a Person-Centered Approach

To date, most research pertaining to the relative contribution of multiple commitments, and of their interactions, has been variable-centered. Again, this approach assumes that any observed effects apply to the entire sample. If commitments can combine in different ways as demonstrated in the profile

studies described above (e.g., Becker & Billings, 1993; Cooper et al., 2016; Morin, Morizot et al., 2011; Swailes, 2004), it is possible that the nature of their combined effects will differ. Moreover, detecting and interpreting interaction effects becomes difficult, if not impossible, when they involve more than three interacting predictors. Cooper et al. (2016), Becker and Billings (1993) and Swailes (2004) each investigated the combined effects of four targets, whereas Morin, Morizot et al. (2011) investigated seven. By taking a person-centered approach, they were able not only to identify different patterns of commitment across targets, but to compare the resulting profiles in relation to relevant outcome variables.

In their study of employees with standard employment, Cooper et al. (2016) found that positive work behaviors and effort were higher, and turnover intentions lower, in profiles presenting the highest levels of commitment across targets, thus suggesting compatibility if not synergy. For employees with fixed employment arrangements, they found some of the strongest positive outcomes were associated with the ‘high macro’ profile (i.e., high scores on all targets), suggesting synergy. However, outcomes were equally positive for employees with a ‘cosmopolitan’ profile, suggesting a compensatory effect.

Morin, Morizot et al. (2011) found five profiles reflecting quite distinctive patterns of commitment to seven targets. Beyond finding generally positive outcomes among employees with a committed profile, and generally negative outcomes for those with an uncommitted profile, they found distinctive patterns of outcomes among the remaining profiles. For example, employees with above-average commitment to their careers, and below-average commitment to the organization, had relatively high scores on turnover intention, below-average scores on in-role performance, but above-average scores on OCB directed at the organization, work group and customers. In this scenario, commitment to one’s career and to the organization may be at odds, resulting in relatively poor performance and stronger intentions to leave the organization. At the same time, these employees seemed to have been engaging in those forms of OCB most instrumental to the pursuit of their career goals, perhaps as part of an impression-management strategy (e.g., Bolino, 1999). As another example, employees with stronger commitment to their supervisor than to the remaining targets, including the organization, had below-average turnover intentions and above-average in-role performance, suggesting that commitment to the supervisor might compensate for a lack of organizational commitment in relation to these outcomes.

In sum, theory pertaining to patterns of multiple commitments (compatible or conflicting) and their effects on outcomes (compensatory, synergistic, competitive) has largely been formulated and investigated from a variable-centered perspective. However, emerging person-centered evidence suggests that these patterns can differ across individuals, as can their combined effects. In this study, we build on the previous person-centered studies by addressing a potential limitation in these studies, namely the failure to disaggregate the global and target-specific variance prior to identifying profiles and investigation of their relations with other variables.

Research Objectives

Our first objective in this study was to identify profiles defined on the basis of both global and target-specific levels of affective commitment. By disaggregating the variance explained by employees’ commitment to specific targets (organization, supervisor, work group, citizens) from their global affective commitment we expect to generate a more differentiated and accurate representation of the underlying profile structure than has been found when the two sources of variance have been confounded (Becker & Billings, 1993; Cooper et al., 2016; Swailes, 2004) or global commitment has simply been controlled (Morin, Morizot, et al., 2011). In the absence of clear theory pertaining to the combination of global and target-specific commitments, and lacking previous empirical guidance from research using a similar approach, we are unable to offer specific hypotheses concerning the expected nature of the profiles, and leave this open as a research question. However, based on previous person-centered studies, profiles dominated by relatively strong commitment to the supervisor and/or the workgroup are likely.

Hypothesis 1. *We will identify multiple (three to six) profiles of commitment reflecting different levels of both global and target-specific commitment.*

Research Question 1. *What configurations of global and target-specific commitments will emerge and will they provide evidence for both compatibility and conflict?*

Our second objective was to compare the profiles in relation to measures of turnover intention, performance (in-role performance and OCB directed at the organization, supervisor, workgroup, and tasks), and well-being (thriving). Consistent with commitment theory and a large body of variable-

centered research, we expected that profiles reflecting strong global affective commitment would be associated with more positive outcomes than would profiles with weaker global commitment.

Hypothesis 2. *Turnover intention will be lower whereas performance (in-role and OCB) and well-being will be higher among employees characterized by profiles with strong rather than weak global affective commitment.*

Generating a priori hypotheses comparing outcomes across profiles with different configurations of commitments to specific targets was more difficult. First, we could not predict with certainty what profiles would emerge from our analyses (see above). Second, there are several competing hypotheses concerning how commitments to specific targets exert their influence. Hunt and Morgan (1994) proposed that commitments to specific internal targets (e.g., supervisor, work group) exert their influence on behavior indirectly through commitment to the organization. In this case, we would expect outcomes to differ most across profiles differing in level of organizational commitment. However, others have proposed a matching hypothesis whereby commitment to specific targets exert their strongest effects on target-relevant outcomes (e.g., Becker & Billings, 1993; Morin et al., 2011). This hypothesis is based on the principle of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), suggesting that individuals who receive benefits from a target will develop a commitment to that target and reciprocate by behaving in a way that supports the target. Therefore, in the present study we might expect OCB directed toward a particular target to be greater for profiles reflecting a strong commitment to that target. Finally, Perreira et al. (2018) raised the possibility that the effects of commitment to specific targets might be channelled through employees' global levels of commitment, in which case we would expect differences in outcomes to be greatest across profiles differing in global commitment (see Hypothesis 2). At best, support for these competing hypotheses has been mixed and, therefore, rather than choosing among them, we left the difference in outcomes across profiles with differing configurations of specific commitments as an open question.

Research Question 2. *How will profiles differing in commitments to specific targets relate to the outcomes, and will relations generally be stronger for global commitment or for specific targets (e.g., organization), or will they be stronger when there is an outcome-target match?*

Our final objective was to investigate how the emerging commitment profiles relate to two of the most well-established predictors of organizational commitment: person-organization values fit (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005) and organizational support (Kurtessis et al., 2055; Meyer et al., 2002). Our focus on these predictors at this preliminary stage of the research is based on the notion that they are amenable to organizational control. That is, organizations can choose the nature and level of support they provide to employees (Stinglhamber et al., 2016), and can design selection, on-boarding, and communication strategies that enhance values fit (van Vianen et al., 2016). We expect that employees who perceive greater support and fit will be more likely to have a profile characterized by strong global commitment, as well as profiles characterized by a high specific commitment to the organization, than will those who do not.

Hypothesis 3. *Employees who perceive greater values fit and organizational support will be more likely to have a profile characterized by strong global commitment and/or by a strong specific commitment to the organization, than a profile characterized by weak global commitment and/or weak specific commitment to the organization.*

It is less clear how values fit and support from the organization will relate to commitment to other targets when separated from employees' global levels of commitment and from their specific levels of commitment to the organization. One possibility is that strong values fit and support will be associated with high levels of commitment to the social targets (i.e., coworkers, supervisors, and customers) just as it is associated with high global levels of work life commitment and of commitment to the organization. That is, the positive implications of organizational support and values fit for work commitments might be wide-ranging. Alternatively, commitments to social targets within the organization might be unrelated to values fit or support from the organization, or commitment to one or more social targets might be elevated under conditions of lack of support or poor values fit if such conditions lead employees to focus on social relationships within the organization. We leave this open as a research question.

Research Question 3. *How will values fit and perceived support relate to commitment to specific social targets when the latter are disassociated with global and organizational commitment, and will the pattern be consistent with spillover or substitution effects?*

Method

Sample and Procedures

Participants for this study were recruited from a police organization in which all employees had the possibility to complete a paper-and-pencil or online version of the questionnaire. Although drawn from a unique type of organization, police employees constitute an ideal sample for this research because they are members of a specific police department (organization), deal with a common citizenry, and belong to units with a supervisor and co-workers with whom they interact regularly. Consequently, all employees have the potential to develop different patterns of commitment to these four targets. They may also differ in their overall level of commitment to their work life in general (Perreira et al., 2018).

No incentives were offered for participation, and individuals were informed of the voluntary nature of their participation and of the confidentiality of their responses. After giving informed consent, 2090 individuals (60.6% males) completed a survey including the measures below at a single point in time. These participants came from 66 distinct work units, each including 11 to 73 participants ($M = 32$, $SD = 16.85$). On average, participants reported having 13.48 ($SD = 8.45$) years of tenure in their organization. Participants' ranks within the organization (e.g., inspector, officer) were classified from the lowest rank possible (1) to the highest rank in the organization (8) on an 8-point scale ($M = 2.24$; $SD = 1.31$).

Measures

Commitment. Participants' affective commitment to their organization (3 items, $\alpha = .850$; e.g., *I am proud to say that I work for my organization*), supervisor (3 items, $\alpha = .893$; e.g., *I like the values conveyed by my immediate supervisor*), coworkers (3 items, $\alpha = .852$; e.g., *I'm happy to work with my co-workers*) and citizens (3 items, $\alpha = .875$; e.g., *I really care about the satisfaction of my organization's customers* [replaced by *citizens* in this study]) was assessed using the short form (Perreira et al., 2018) of the Workplace Affective Commitment Multidimensional Questionnaire (Morin et al., 2009). All items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1-totally disagree to 5-totally agree. This instrument was initially developed in French and English, and previous research has supported the factor validity of a bifactor measurement model, scale score reliability, test-retest reliability, criterion-related validity, and measurement invariance across linguistic version of scores on this instrument (Perreira et al., 2018).

Acknowledging the limitations of coefficient alpha (α) as an indicator of reliability (e.g., Cortina et al., 2020), composite coefficients of reliability were calculated for all measured used in this study using McDonald (1970) omega (ω) coefficient. Additional details on these measurement models are reported in the online supplements. In relation to commitment, and keeping in mind the bifactor operationalization of this construct advocated by Perreira et al. (2018), composite reliability coefficients (ω) were of .897 for the global commitment factor, .698 for the specific commitment to the organization factor, .884 for the specific commitment to the supervisor factor, .828 for the specific commitment to the colleagues factor, and .836 for the specific commitment to the citizens factor.

Person-Organization Values Fit. The extent to which participants perceived that their values matched those from their organization was assessed with three-items ($\alpha = .940$; $\omega = .941$; e.g., *The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values*) developed by Cable and DeRue (2002). These items were adapted to French via a classical translation back-translation procedures and rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not true at all) to 5 (totally true).

Perceived Support from the Organization. Participants' perceptions of the "extent to which the organization values and cares for employees" (p.385) was measured using the welfare dimension (4 items; $\alpha = .899$; $\omega = .903$; e.g., *The organization cares about its employees*) from Patterson et al.'s (2005) Organizational Climate Measure. These items were adapted to French via a translation back-translation procedures, and rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1-Not true at all to 5-totally true.

In-Role Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs). Participants self-reported their in-role performance (3 items; $\alpha = .885$; $\omega = .887$; e.g., *Adequately carry out the tasks related to my job*), OCBs directed at the organization (3 items; $\alpha = .882$; $\omega = .890$; e.g., *Make suggestions to improve the organization's functioning*), OCBs directed at coworkers (6 items; $\alpha = .849$; ; $\omega = .849$; e.g., *Providing constructive feedback that helps my coworkers*) and OCBs directed at improving the execution of their tasks (3 items; $\alpha = .902$; ; $\omega = .901$; e.g., *Make changes to improve efficiency in performing my tasks*) using a short version (Perreira et al., 2018) of a measure developed in French and English by Boudrias and colleagues (Boudrias et al., 2009; Boudrias & Savoie, 2006). All items were rated on a 10-point frequency scale ranging from 1 (almost never [0-10% of possible occasions]) to 10

(almost always [90%-100% of possible occasions]).

Turnover intentions. Participants' intentions to leave their organization ($\alpha = .727$; $\omega = .723$; e.g., *I intend to look for a job in another organization in the next year*) were assessed using a two items adapted to French by Bentein et al. (2005) from measures developed by Hom and Griffeth (1991) and used by Jaros (1997). These items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Thriving. Participants' thriving at work was measured using the French version (Boudrias et al., 2015) of Porath et al.'s (2011) instrument. This instrument covers two dimensions of thriving at work: vitality (3 items; $\alpha = .891$; $\omega = .892$ e.g., *"I am looking forward to each new day"*) and learning (3 items; $\alpha = .830$; $\omega = .835$; e.g., *"I see myself continually improving"*). All items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Analyses

Model Estimation

All analyses in the present study were conducted using the Maximum Likelihood Robust (MLR) estimator in the Mplus 8.0 statistical package (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). This estimator is robust to multivariate non-normality, and to the nesting of participants within their 66 distinct work units when used (as in the present study) in conjunction with the complex survey design function (Asparouhov, 2005; Marsh & O'Mara, 2010). Missing data present at the item level (0% to 2.30%; $M = .70\%$; $SD = .51\%$) were handled using full information maximum likelihood estimation procedures (Enders, 2010).

Preliminary Analyses

The psychometric properties of all multi-item instruments used in this study were first verified in a series of preliminary factor analyses. The main analyses relied on factor scores saved from these preliminary models in standardized units ($M = 0$, $SD = 1$). When compared to scale scores (the mean or sum of items forming a scale), factor scores are partially controlled for unreliability (Skrondal & Laake, 2001) and more accurately preserve the structure of the measurement models. The measurement model used for the commitment variable was specified according to a bifactor parameterization (e.g., Holzinger & Swineford, 1937) following from Ferreira et al.'s (2018) recommendations and reported optimal solution for this questionnaire.

Latent Profile Analyses (LPA)

LPA solutions including one to 10 profiles were estimated while allowing for the free estimation of the means of the commitment factors across profiles. Despite the advantages of allowing for the free estimation of the indicators' variances across profiles (Peugh & Fan, 2013), the estimation of models based on this alternative specification resulted in important convergence difficulties (e.g., nonconvergence, impossible parameter estimates, non-replicated loglikelihood, empty profiles). Such convergence difficulties suggest the inadequacy of this specification (overparameterization), and the superiority of the parsimonious specification used in the present study (Bauer & Curran, 2003; Chen et al. 2001). LPA were estimated with 10,000 random sets of start values, 500 iterations, and a final optimization process conducted on the 500 best solutions (Hipp & Bauer, 2006; McLachlan & Peel, 2000). All solutions converged on a replicated log likelihood.

The decision of how many profiles to retain should be based, in large part, on an examination of the theoretical meaning, heuristic value, and statistical adequacy of the solution (Bauer & Curran, 2003; Marsh et al., 2009; Muthén, 2003). Various statistical indicators are also available to guide this selection process, including the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Consistent AIC (CAIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), sample-size Adjusted BIC (ABIC), Integrated Classification Likelihood BIC (ICL-BIC: A BIC corrected for the model entropy, an indicator of the model classification accuracy), Lo, Mendel and Rubin's (2001) adjusted Likelihood Ratio Test (aLMR), and Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT)¹. A lower value on the AIC, CAIC, BIC, ABIC, and ICL-BIC suggests a better-fitting model, whereas a statistically significant result on the aLMR or BLRT supports a solution relative to one including fewer profiles. Simulation studies indicate that five of these indicators (CAIC,

¹ To obtain BLRT estimates, these initial LPA solutions had to be estimated without the Mplus design based correction for nesting into work units, which has no impact on the accuracy of the other model fit indicators (Morin & Wang, 2016). Yet, because ignoring nesting is likely to impact parameter estimates (Chen et al., 2010), the final solution was re-estimated while relying on this function. Solutions including covariates were also estimated while controlling for nesting.

BIC, ABIC, ICL-BIC, and BLRT) are effective (e.g., Diallo et al., 2016, 2017; Henson, Reise, & Kim, 2007; Nylund et al., 2007; Peugh & Fan, 2013; Tein et al., 2013; Tofighi & Enders, 2008), while the AIC and aLMR are not (we thus only report these indicators for complete disclosure purposes). However, all of these indicators remain impacted by sample size (Marsh et al., 2009), so that they often fail to converge on a specific solution. When this happens, it is recommended that the indicators be graphically depicted via elbow plots. The point at which the decrease in the value of these indicators flattens suggests the optimal number of profiles (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin, Maïano et al., 2011).

Predictors and Outcomes of Profile Membership

The profiles were first contrasted in relation to the various outcome variables using a weighted multiple group mean comparison procedure (Bakk et al., 2013; Vermunt, 2010) implemented in Mplus through the Auxiliary (BCH) function (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2015). Finally, relations between the predictors and participants' likelihood of membership in the various profiles were assessed using a multinomial logistic regression link function based on the direct inclusion of the predictors into the final LPA solution (Diallo et al., 2017).

Results

Number of Latent Profiles

The statistical indicators associated with the alternative LPA solutions are reported in Table 1, and graphically presented in Figure S1 of the online supplements. These results show that the CAIC, BIC, and ABIC all continued to decrease as latent profiles were added to the solution, and that BLRT failed to converge on any specific solution. In contrast, the ICL-BIC reached its lowest point for the 7-profile solution. Examination of the graphical display of the value of these indicators suggests a tentative inflexion point located at the 6-profile solution for the CAIC, BIC, and ABIC, and a clearer inflexion point located at the 5-profile solution for the ICL-BIC. Solutions ranging from four to seven profiles were thus more carefully inspected. This inspection revealed that the addition of latent profiles brought theoretical and heuristic value to the solution, resulting in new profiles characterized by a well-differentiated configuration, up to the 6-profile solution. For instance, when looking at the profiles illustrated in Figure 1, the 5-profile solution resulted in the addition of Profile 3, while the 6-profile solution resulted in the addition of Profile 1. In contrast, adding a seventh profile to the solution only resulted in the arbitrary division of Profile 4 (Figure 1) into two much smaller profiles presenting a very similar shape.

For this reason, the 6-profile solution was retained for interpretation, after re-estimating it with the Mplus design-based correction for the nesting of employees within work units to maximize accuracy. This solution is graphically illustrated in Figure 1, and detailed parameter estimates are reported in Tables S4 and S5 of the online supplements. The results revealed a high level of classification accuracy of participants into their most likely profile, ranging from 79.1% to 91.4%, as summarized by an entropy value of .782.

Profile Description

Profiles 1, 4, and 6, corresponding to 4.50%, 4.74% and 15.43% of the sample, respectively, were all characterized by very low (Profiles 1 and 4) to low (Profile 6) global levels of work life commitment, coupled with low (Profiles 1 and 6) to very low (Profile 4) specific levels of commitment to the organization. Based on this description, we refer to these three profiles as being *globally uncommitted*. In addition, Profile 1 presented moderately high levels of specific commitment to the supervisor and coworkers coupled with very low levels of specific commitment to the citizens. In contrast, Profile 4 presented moderately high levels of specific commitment to the workgroup, supervisors, and citizens. Finally, Profile 6 presented close to average levels of specific commitment to the supervisor and coworkers coupled with moderately high levels of specific commitment to the citizens. To capture these differences, we hereafter refer to Profile 1 as *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented*, to Profile 4 as *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented*, and to Profile 6 as *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented*.

Profiles 2 and 3, corresponding to 5.45% and 27.52% of the sample, respectively, were both characterized by close to average global levels of work life commitment, coupled with moderately high levels specific commitment to the organization. Based on this description, we refer to these two profiles as *Moderately Committed*. However, Profile 2 also presented moderately high levels of specific commitment to the citizens, coupled with close to average levels of specific commitment to the coworkers and very low levels of commitment to the supervisor. In contrast, Profile 3 presented close

to average levels of specific commitment to the supervisor and coworkers, coupled with low levels of commitment to the citizens. To capture these differences, we hereafter refer to Profile 2 as *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* and to Profile 3 as *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented*.

Finally, Profile 5 was characterized by high global levels of work life commitment, coupled with moderately high levels of specific commitment to the organization, supervisor, coworkers, and citizens. This profile, which was the largest (corresponding to 42.36% of the sample) will hereafter be referred to as *Globally Committed: Balanced*.

Outcomes of Profile Membership

Variable-by-variable comparisons of outcomes across profiles with a summary of tests of significance are provided in Table 2. To be consistent with the holistic perspective provided by the person-centered approach, we summarize the findings by profile, ordered by level of global commitment. Not surprisingly, with one exception, in-role performance, OCB (task-, work group-, and organization-focused), and thriving (learning and vitality) tended to be greatest, and turnover intention lowest, for the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile. The only non-significant difference involved the comparison with the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile for OCB directed at the organization.

Outcomes for the two moderately committed profiles were less positive than for the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile, but more positive than for the uncommitted profiles. However, between the two moderately committed profiles, outcomes were more positive for the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile than for the *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile. This might suggest a synergistic effect of specific commitment to the citizens beyond commitment to the organization. The superiority of outcomes in the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile appeared despite very weak specific commitment to the supervisor. The strong disparity in specific commitment to the organization and supervisor in this profile might be indicative of conflicting commitments and competitive effects.

Among the uncommitted profiles, the least positive outcomes were associated with the *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) profile. This is true for turnover intention, the performance indicators, and well-being. Compared to profiles with stronger global commitment, the *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) and *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profiles were also associated with relatively poor outcomes. However, comparisons between these two profiles reveals some interesting similarities and differences. These two profiles are similar (do not differ significantly) for in-role performance, OCB directed at the organization and work group, and for the two dimensions of thriving. However, they differ significantly from one another for OCB directed at task efficiency, where scores are higher for the *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile, and for turnover intention, where scores were lower for the *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) profile. That is, individuals with weak global commitment but above average specific commitment to the citizens report more task-relevant OCB, but stronger intention to leave, than those with weak global commitment combined with an above-average specific commitment to people in general (i.e., supervisor, work group, and citizens). Thus, in the absence of strong global commitment, commitment to people within the organization might help to reduce turnover intention. However, it appears to be specific commitment to the citizens that motivates effort to improve task efficiency. Commitment to citizens alone might not contribute to intention to remain because citizens are external to the organization and, as a generic 'collective', can be served as a member of another police organization.

Predictors of Profile Membership

Associations between the participants' likelihood of profile membership and the predictors considered in this study are reported in Table 3. For the demographic variables, only gender and tenure predicted profile membership; rank did not. Specific comparisons are available in Table 3 but, in general, women were more likely than men to be members of the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) and *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profiles, whereas the reverse was true for the *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) and *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profiles. That is, women generally had a stronger global commitment than did men. Among men with low global commitment, specific commitments to the work group, and people more broadly, were greater than specific commitment solely to the citizens. Employees with longer tenure were more likely to be members of the *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) and *Moderately Committed:*

Organization Oriented (3) profiles than the remaining profiles. That is, they were more likely than newer employees to be globally uncommitted but with a specific commitment to the work group, or to be moderately committed overall with a specific commitment to the organization. Although we did not make a priori predictions concerning demographic differences, and recognize that those we observed may be context specific, the observed associations with demographic variables were controlled in analyses conducted to examine relations with values fit and organizational support.

As was the case for the demographic variables, variable-by-variable comparisons for the theoretical antecedents are reported in Table 3. As for the outcomes, we summarize the findings by profile, ordered in terms of level of global commitment. It is important to note, however, that the overall pattern of findings is very similar for both values fit and organizational support. In general, employees who reported greater values fit and organizational support were most likely to be members of the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile, followed by *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) and *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profiles, and least likely to be members of *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1), *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4), and *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profiles. In other words, perceptions of values fit and organizational support were associated with stronger global commitment. However, comparisons involving the two moderately committed profiles revealed interesting differences, showing that increased values fit predicted an increased likelihood of membership in the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile than in the *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile. In contrast, the findings for organizational support were in the opposite direction, predicting an increased likelihood of membership into the *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile relative to the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile. Finally, comparisons involving the globally uncommitted profiles revealed no differences for the *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) and the *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) profiles, but membership in these profiles was significantly less likely than membership in the *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile as values fit and organizational support increased. Thus, although global commitment was weak in these profiles, perceptions of values fit and support may have favored specific commitment to the citizens than to work group and/or supervisor.

Discussion

This study was conducted to identify profiles of commitments to multiple work-related targets among employees from a police organization, and to investigate how these profiles relate to work experiences, behaviors, and well-being. The study contributes to a small but growing body of person-centered multi-target commitment research by partitioning variance in commitment ratings to reflect both global and target-specific commitments. Consequently, the findings provide some important new insights into the way multiple commitments combine and contribute to employees' intentions to remain, performance, and well-being.

Contributions to Theory

Our findings address three theoretical issues pertaining to multiple workplace commitments. The first has to do with whether commitments to different targets are compatible or in conflict (e.g., Gouldner, 1958; Reichers, 1985). The second is whether commitment to the organization encapsulates commitments to other social targets and is primary in the prediction of outcomes, or is simply one of many commitments that exert independent effects (e.g., Becker et al., 1996; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Perreira et al., 2018). The third deals with the complementary, synergistic, or competitive nature of the combined effects of multiple commitments (Johnson et al., 2009). Much of the research addressing the foregoing issues has been variable-centered, and involves pitting one proposition against another (e.g., compatible vs. conflicting; primary vs. one of many; compensatory vs. synergistic vs. competitive). Moreover, the parameters obtained in relevant analyses (e.g., correlation, regression) are assumed to apply to the entire sample. In contrast, a person-centered approach allows for the recognition that each of the competing propositions might apply to different types of individuals. By partitioning variance in the measures of commitment into independent global and specific components in the present study, we were able to identify patterns reflecting both global levels of affective commitment across work-related social targets, and specific levels of commitments to these multiple targets over and above this global level. Consequently, our findings provide new insight into the way that multiple commitments are experienced and exert their combined effects on important outcomes.

Compatibility versus Conflict. We found that commitments to the four targets under

investigation are indeed related, and that the global factor plays a central role in differentiating the subpopulations within a heterogeneous sample. The fact that this global level of commitment reflects meaningful variance that is shared across the four targets suggests that there is an inherent compatibility among multiple targets of commitment (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005). However, this general compatibility does not preclude the possibility for conflicts between specific targets beyond this global compatibility. Furthermore, such conflicts might manifest differently across subpopulations, as reflected in the patterns of specific commitments within profiles obtained among employees with moderate or low levels of global commitment. For example, in the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile, above average commitment to the organization and citizens was combined with a very weak commitment to the supervisor. This was a small profile, and we cannot explain the psychological mechanisms underpinning this pattern with certainty. However, it is possible that employees characterized by this profile might have perceived a clash between the values underlying their organization's mission (to protect and serve the citizens) and those promoted by their immediate supervisor. Similar profiles have been observed in earlier studies (e.g., Cooper et al., 2016; Morin, Morizot et al., 2011) suggesting that a conflict between commitments to the organization and/or the citizens and commitment to the supervisor is not unique to our sample. Additional examples of conflict, or trade-offs, albeit weaker, can be seen in other profiles with moderate or weak global commitment. These include work group versus organization and citizens (Profile 1), people versus organization (Profile 4), and citizens versus other targets (Profile 5). It thus appears that commitments to different constituencies can be compatible for some individuals but in opposition for others.

Organizational Commitment as Primary or 'One of Many'. Our findings also suggest that there is no simple answer to the question of whether commitment to the organization encapsulates commitments to other internal constituencies, and is the primary predictor of outcomes, or is simply one of many commitments that exert independent effects (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). For employees with moderate or weak global commitment, distinct patterns of specific commitments, including commitment to the organization, were associated with different outcomes. For example, outcomes were generally more positive for the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile than for the *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile. Moreover, among the profiles characterized by low global levels of commitment, the *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile was associated with greater OCB directed at task efficiency whereas the *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) profile was associated with lower turnover intention. These findings are consistent with the notion of independent effects. In contrast, for employees with a *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile, both global and target-specific commitments were aligned and associated with the highest levels of all outcomes, suggesting joint rather than independent effects.

Our results seem to support Perreira et al.'s (2018) proposition in showing that commitment profiles, and their associations with outcomes, are differentiated primarily in terms of an employee's global level of commitment. Discrepancies, or imbalance in the levels of specific commitments, seem to emerge primarily with moderate or low global levels of commitment. Moreover, these discrepancies are as likely to involve commitment to the organization as they are any other target, suggesting that commitment to the organization might best be considered 'one of many' commitments rather than as having special status (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). Admittedly, however, our findings are not sufficient to draw definitive conclusions regarding the primacy of global commitment vis a vis organizational commitment as the basis for the (mis)alignment among commitment targets. Indeed, teasing these possibilities apart would require a longitudinal investigation, ideally with newcomers, to examine how each profile, especially the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) one, emerge and evolve over time. Such a study would make it possible to clearly identify which specific commitments emerge early on and serve as anchors for the development of the profiles identified in the present study. For instance, observing that organizational commitment emerges early, and predates the emergence of *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile, would provide support for Hunt and Morgan's (1994) proposition.

Complementarity versus Synergy versus Competition. As noted above, we found that the strength of the global factor was a major predictor of turnover intention, performance, and well-being across profiles. Thus, there may be an inherent synergy associated with strong global commitment. Evidence for synergy was also reflected in the comparison of the two profiles with moderate global commitment. Here we found that employees with above average commitment to both the organization and the citizens had higher scores on in-role performance and the three OCB measures than did those

with above average commitment to the organization alone. However, we also found some evidence for complementarity and competition (Johnson et al., 2009). For example, although employees with a *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* (2) profile outperformed those with a *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile (synergy), they also had stronger intentions to leave (competition). Moreover, employees with a *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile did not differ from those with a *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile on in-role performance or OCB (complementarity), but reported greater intention to leave (competition). In contrast, employees with a *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) profile differed significantly from those with a *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile on in-role performance and OCB (competition), but not on intention to leave (complementarity). Overall, therefore, evidence for complementarity, synergy, and competition appears to depend on the levels of global commitment and of commitment to the specific targets in the profiles that are being compared. There is no evidence for ‘one-size-fits-all.’

Antecedents of Profiles. Finally, our findings regarding antecedents of profile membership were generally consistent with theory and previous research suggesting that perceived values fit (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005) and organizational support (Kurtessis et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2002) are strong predictors of affective commitment. Importantly, despite their ‘organizational focus’, values fit and organizational support were strongest for the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile, and weakest for the uncommitted profiles, suggesting that their effects might extend beyond commitment to the organization. Among those with low global commitment, values fit and organizational support were greater for those with a *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile, compared to those with *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented* (1) and *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) profiles. Although perhaps unique to this sample, these finding suggests that perceived values fit and organizational support may have been more relevant to fostering commitment to the organization and citizens than to the supervisor or work group. Interestingly, among the profiles characterized by moderate global levels of commitment, the effects of these two predictors seem to differ in a way that suggests specific mechanisms. Thus, whereas values fit appeared to increase the likelihood of membership into the *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented* profile, organizational support instead seemed to increase the the likelihood of membership into the *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented* (3) profile. This suggests that, for employees displaying a moderate global level of commitments, values fit may be beneficial to nurturing their commitment to the mission of the organization, whereas the effects of organizational support might be more specific to their commitment to the organization itself.

In summary, our findings warn against ‘either-or’ propositions regarding compatibility versus conflict, organizational commitment as primary versus one of many, or complementarity versus synergy versus competition, even as they pertain to specific outcomes. Rather, they suggest that all might co-exist within a population and be reflected within different unobserved subpopulations. In addition to calling for greater nuance in theory pertaining to multiple commitments, these findings can have important implications for practice.

Implications for Practice

All organizations want to retain their best people, have them perform effectively, and keep them healthy. There is an abundance of evidence suggesting that building strong affective commitment to the organization can be an important contributor to the fulfillment of these objectives (Klein, Becker, & Meyer, 2009; Meyer, 2016; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Maltin, 2010). However, organizations can be complex structures with multiple constituencies to which employees can also commit. This raises questions about whether there might be an optimal pattern of commitment, whether trade-offs are necessary, and/or whether substitutions are possible to achieve similar ends (e.g., is commitment to a team as effective as commitment to the organization to enhance retention)?

Our findings suggest that there is indeed an optimal pattern. Retention, performance, and employee well-being were all greatest among employees with a *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile. These employees had a strong overarching commitment to their work combined with a balance of positive commitment to the organization, supervisor, work team and citizens. The results of our antecedent analyses suggest that this optimal profile might be achieved through efforts to support employees and to foster strong values fit. Based on the broader commitment literature, other factors likely to contribute to the development of such a profile are perceived fairness in policy and practice

(Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), engaging work (Borst, Kruyen, Lako, & de Vries, 2019), and transformational leadership (Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013), among others (see Klein et al., 2009, and Meyer, 2016, for detailed reviews). There may also be individual differences contributing to the propensity to commit (Bergman & Jean, 2016; Morin, Morizot et al., 2011), that organizations might consider in the selection process. These might include several of the Big 5 personality traits e.g., agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability; Choi et al., 2015) as well as the traits associated with a positive core self-evaluation (self-esteem, internal locus of control; general self-efficacy, and low neuroticism: Peng et al., 2014).

Our findings regarding profiles with moderate or weak global commitment suggest that, in the absence of strong global and balanced commitments, other profiles emerge and are characterized by different patterns of specific commitments. These profiles were found to relate differently to the outcomes measured in this study, suggesting the possibility that organizations might be able to foster specific commitments that best align with their most important objectives. For example, in the present study, a *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented* (6) profile might be preferred over a *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented* (4) profile if dedication to task efficiency is considered more important than retention, whereas the opposite would be the case if retention is most important.

Our findings also suggested that these profiles might be fostered through the relative emphasis placed on values fit versus organizational support, respectively. However, there are important caveats to this strategy. First, it must not be forgotten that, despite the relative benefits of one specific commitment over another, the outcomes achieved in these unbalanced profiles were significantly worse than those achieved in the *Globally Committed: Balanced* (5) profile. Thus, seeking commitment to a specific target rather than attempting to achieve strong global and balanced commitments will come at a cost. Second, the outcomes of commitment to any specific target appear to depend on the way it combines with commitments to other targets and therefore might not be easily predicted. Therefore, careful attention must be given to the nature of the target, the goals and values of that target, and the logical links between commitment to that target and outcomes of highest priority to the organization. This might be a difficult task.

Limitations and Future Directions

The theoretical and practical implications of this study must be qualified by several limitations. First, the study was conducted with employees from a single police organization and results may not generalize to other police organizations or to employees in general. We also considered only a selected set of commitment targets, outcomes, and antecedents. Our findings point to the potential benefits of taking a person-centered approach to the study of multiple work commitments, and to the advantage of disaggregating global from specific variance. However, our study requires replication with other samples, using a broader set of targets (e.g., occupation, career) along with more diverse target-relevant outcomes and antecedents. Likewise, there would be value in conducting research involving other targets, including those external to the organization (e.g., career, union, family, leisure; see Horsman, Gallagher, & Kelloway, 2016; Perreira et al., 2018; Vandenberghe, 2016) as well as action-oriented targets (e.g., goals, projects, change initiatives: see Meyer & Anderson, 2016; Neubert & Wu, 2009).

Second, all our measures were self-reported. Although there are implicit controls for common method bias in LPA (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin, 2016), it would be useful in future research to include other, perhaps multiple, sources of data for the antecedents and outcomes. Our data were also collected at a single time point. A cross-sectional design was well suited to this initial investigation of the disaggregation of global and specific commitments as a ‘proof of concept’. However, complementary person-centered analytic techniques, such as latent transition analyses and growth mixture analyses, can be used going forward to investigate changes in profile membership and distinctive patterns of intra-individual change trajectories, respectively, using longitudinal data (see Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin, 2016).

Finally, we focused exclusively on affective commitment to the four targets in this study. Expanding the investigation to other mindsets of commitment (e.g. normative, continuance) would have increased both computational and cognitive demands. That is, with the number of parameters to be estimated, it is unlikely that LPA would have converged on a meaningful solution with the sample available for this study. Moreover, even with convergence, the resulting model would likely have been difficult to interpret. With four targets and three mindsets of commitment, the results of an LPA would have produced the equivalent of a 12-way interaction. There is no theory currently available to anticipate

the nature of the interactions that might have been observed, or to aid in interpretation. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge that affective commitment can interact with normative and continuance commitment, both within and across targets, to influence outcomes such as performance and well-being (Johnson et al., 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Morin, 2016). Among other things, failing to measure other commitment mindsets reduces the ability to detect dependencies that develop across targets. For example, Morin et al. (2015) and Meyer et al. (2019) found profiles combining strong overall commitment to the occupation and normative-dominant commitment to the organization. They proposed that the strong desire to remain in the profession might have contributed to a feeling of obligation to remain in the organization. To date, studies that measured multiple commitment mindsets have been restricted to a maximum of two targets (e.g., Meyer et al., 2015, 2018; Morin et al., 2015; Tsoumbri & Xenikou, 2010). Therefore, in the short term, addressing the full complexity of commitment forms and targets will require conceptual integration of finding from multiple target research such as the present with existing multiple-mindset (Meyer & Morin, 2016) and multiple-mindset/dual-target studies.

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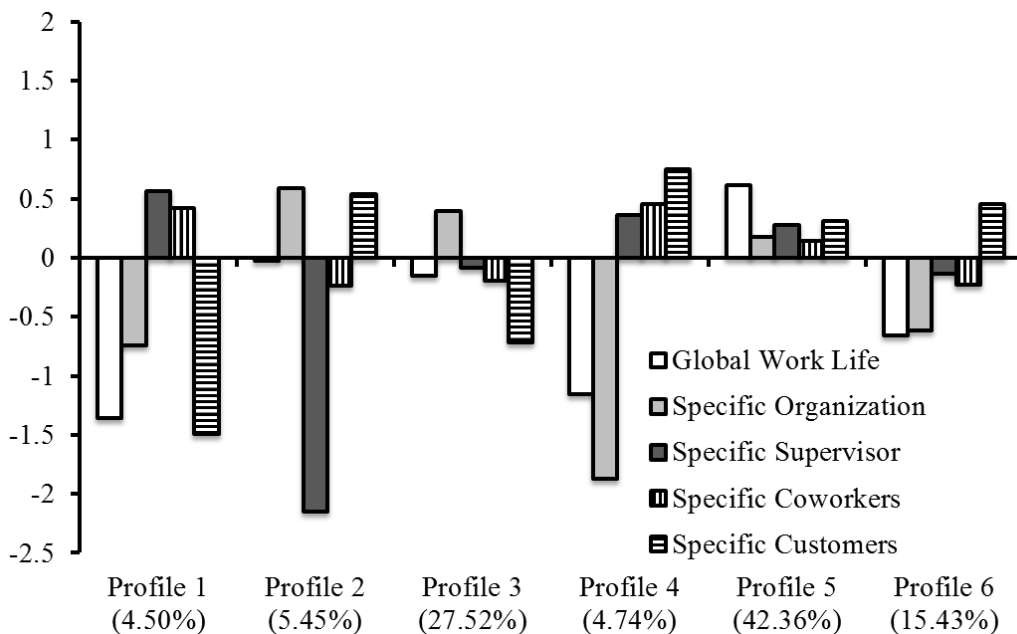


Figure 1. Final 6-Profile Solution

Note. Profile indicators are estimated from factor scores with mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1; Profile 1 = Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented; Profile 2 = Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented; Profile 3 = Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented; Profile 4 = Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented; Profile 5 = Globally Committed: Balanced; Profile 6 = Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented.

Table 1*Results from the Latent Profiles Analyses*

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	ICL-BIC	Entrop y	aLMR	BLRT
1 Profile	-12911.570	10	1.2820	25843.139	25909.589	25899.589	25867.818	Na	Na	Na	Na
2 Profiles	-12387.658	16	1.4253	24807.315	24913.634	24897.634	24846.800	24552.849	.881	≤ .001	≤ .001
3 Profiles	-12199.518	22	1.4974	24443.035	24589.224	24567.224	24497.327	24002.383	.877	≤ .001	≤ .001
4 Profiles	-12036.352	28	1.9126	24128.704	24314.762	24286.762	24197.803	23336.429	.836	.227	≤ .001
5 Profiles	-11911.869	34	1.6313	23891.737	24117.665	24083.665	23975.643	22428.712	.754	.003	≤ .001
6 Profiles	-11777.881	40	1.9168	23635.762	23901.558	23861.558	23734.474	22228.835	.782	.318	≤ .001
7 Profiles	-11682.475	46	1.7830	23456.950	23762.616	23716.616	23570.470	22073.567	.798	.060	≤ .001
8 Profiles	-11594.201	52	1.8636	23292.402	23637.938	23585.938	23420.729	22490.738	.874	.370	≤ .001
9 Profiles	-11483.577	58	1.9198	23083.154	23468.559	23410.559	23226.287	22464.566	.897	.318	≤ .001
10 Profiles	-11413.435	64	1.8860	22954.870	23380.145	23316.145	23112.811	22353.664	.900	.230	≤ .001
Final 6 Profiles	-11777.881	40	2.5085	23635.762	23901.558	23861.558	23734.474	22228.835	.782	Na	Na

Note. The solution labelled as “Final” (last line) has been re-estimated with the Mplus design based correction for nesting to maximise accuracy; LL = model loglikelihood; #fp = number of free parameters; AIC = Akaike information criterion; CAIC = consistent AIC; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; ABIC = sample-size adjusted BIC; ICL-BIC = Integrated classification likelihood BIC; aLMR = Lo-Mendel and Rubin’s likelihood ratio test; BLRT = bootstrap likelihood ratio test; Na = not applicable.

Table 2
Associations between Profile Membership and the Outcomes

	Profile 1 Mean [CI]	Profile 2 Mean [CI]	Profile 3 Mean [CI]	Profile 4 Mean [CI]	Profile 5 Mean [CI]	Profile 6 Mean [CI]	Significant Differences
In-Role Performance	-1.075 [-1.506; -.644]	.254 [.080; .428]	-.429 [-.549; -.309]	-.159 [-.424; .106]	.477 [.416; .538]	-.270 [-.393; -.147]	5 > 2 > 4 > 3 > 1; 3 = 6; 5 > 2 > 4 = 6 > 1
OCB: Tasks	-.847 [-1.151; -.543]	.053 [-.133; .239]	-.298 [-.414; -.182]	-.457 [-.747; -.167]	.381 [.310; .452]	-.148 [-.283; -.013]	5 > 2 = 6 > 1 = 4; 3 = 6 > 1; 5 > 2 > 3 = 4
OCB: Group	-.671 [-.920; -.422]	.141 [-.055; .337]	-.208 [-.328; -.088]	-.076 [-.292; .140]	.256 [.174; .338]	-.163 [-.285; -.041]	5 > 3 = 4 = 6 > 1; 2 = 4; 2 = 5 > 3 = 6 > 1
OCB: Org.	-.464 [-.636; -.292]	.230 [.009; .451]	-.232 [-.332; -.132]	-.130 [-.328; .068]	.237 [.159; .315]	-.143 [-.272; -.014]	2 = 5 > 3 = 4 = 6 > 1
Turnover Intentions	.883 [.560; 1.206]	.308 [-.021; .637]	-.111 [-.203; -.019]	1.026 [.785; 1.267]	-.416 [-.465; -.367]	.658 [.472; .844]	1 = 4 > 2 > 3 > 5; 2 = 6; 1 = 6 > 3 > 5; 4 > 6
Thriving: Learning	-1.162 [-1.448; -.876]	-.133 [-.376; .110]	-.21 [-.302; -.118]	-.863 [-1.190; -.536]	.576 [.515; .637]	-.557 [-.659; -.455]	5 > 2 = 3 > 4 = 6; 5 > 2 = 3 > 1 = 4; 6 > 1
Thriving: Vitality	-1.204 [-1.522; -.886]	-.223 [-.492; .046]	-.215 [-.307; -.123]	-.880 [-1.194; -.566]	.604 [.545; .663]	-.573 [-.687; -.459]	5 > 2 = 3 > 4 = 6; 5 > 2 = 3 > 1 = 4; 6 > 1

Note. OCB = Organizational citizenship behaviors; CI = 95% confidence interval; outcomes levels are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; Profile 1 = *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented*; Profile 2 = *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented*; Profile 3 = *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented*; Profile 4 = *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented*; Profile 5 = *Globally Committed: Balanced*; Profile 6 = *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented*.

Table 3
Results from the Predictive Analyses

Predictors	Profile 1 vs 6		Profile 2 vs 6		Profile 3 vs 6		Profile 4 vs 6		Profile 5 vs 6	
	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR
Sex	1.049 (.410)**	2.855	-.666 (.319)*	.514	.123 (.222)	1.130	.685 (.325)*	1.984	-.686 (.200)**	.503
Police Rank	-.129 (.132)	.879	-.027 (.209)	.974	.077 (.069)	1.080	.126 (.131)	1.135	.149 (.105)	1.160
Tenure (Organization)	-.594 (.133)**	.552	-.007 (.152)	.993	-.400 (.108)**	.671	-.024 (.148)	.976	-.025 (.123)	.975
Person-Org. Values Fit	-.483 (.166)**	.617	.809 (.253)**	2.245	.257 (.099)**	1.293	-.298 (.131)*	.742	1.534 (.178)**	4.638
Organizational Support	-.616 (.184)**	.540	-.017 (.210)	.984	.725 (.126)**	2.064	-1.296 (.429)**	.274	1.360 (.122)**	3.898
Predictors	Profile 1 vs 5		Profile 2 vs 5		Profile 3 vs 5		Profile 4 vs 5		Profile 1 vs 4	
	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR
Sex	1.735 (.416)**	5.670	.020 (.327)	1.020	.809 (.175)**	2.245	1.371 (.345)**	3.941	.364 (.419)	1.439
Police Rank	-.278 (.176)	.758	-.175 (.191)	.839	-.072 (.087)	.931	-.022 (.160)	.978	-.255 (.131)	.775
Tenure (Organization)	-.569 (.175)**	.566	.018 (.186)	1.018	-.375 (.115)**	.688	.001 (.166)	1.001	-.569 (.164)**	.566
Person-Org. Values Fit	-2.017 (.231)**	.133	-.726 (.238)**	.484	-1.277 (.147)**	.279	-1.832 (.214)**	.160	-.185 (.172)	.831
Organizational Support	-1.977 (.209)**	.139	-1.377 (.192)**	.252	-.636 (.135)**	.529	-2.656 (.427)**	.070	.679 (.427)	1.972
Predictors	Profile 2 vs 4		Profile 3 vs 4		Profile 1 vs 3		Profile 2 vs 3		Profile 1 vs 2	
	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR	Coef. (SE)	OR
Sex	-1.352 (.382)**	.259	-.563 (.282)*	.570	.926 (.360)**	2.525	-.789 (.302)**	.454	1.715 (.433)**	5.559
Police Rank	-.153 (.224)	.858	-.049 (.128)	.952	-.206 (.131)	.814	-.104 (.209)	.901	-.102 (.263)	.903
Tenure (Organization)	.017 (.215)	1.017	-.375 (.146)**	.687	-.194 (.142)	.824	.392 (.182)*	1.480	-.587 (.202)**	.556
Person-Org. Values Fit	1.107 (.259)**	3.024	.555 (.146)**	1.742	-.740 (.175)**	.477	.551 (.221)*	1.736	-1.291 (.273)**	.275
Organizational Support	1.279 (.383)**	3.593	2.020 (.402)**	7.540	-1.341 (.201)**	.262	-.741 (.186)**	.477	-.600 (.224)**	.549

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; SE: standard error of the coefficient; OR: odds ratio; 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; non-demographic predictors are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; Profile 1 = *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented*; Profile 2 = *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented*; Profile 3 = *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented*; Profile 4 = *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented*; Profile 5 = *Globally Committed: Balanced*; Profile 6 = *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented*.

Online Supplemental Materials for:

Profiles of Global and Target-specific Work Commitments:

Why Compatibility is Better and How to Achieve it

Preliminary Measurement Models

Preliminary analyses were done using the Mplus 8.0 statistical package, using the Maximum Likelihood Robust (MLR) estimator (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). This estimator is robust to multivariate non-normality, and to the nesting of participants within their 66 distinct work units when used (as in the present study) in conjunction with the complex survey design function (Asparouhov, 2005; Marsh & O'Mara, 2010). Missing data present at the item level (0% to 2.30%; $M = .70\%$; $SD = .51\%$) were handled using full information maximum likelihood estimation procedures (Enders, 2010).

The measurement model used for the commitment variable was specified according to a bifactor parameterization (e.g., Holzinger & Swineford, 1937) following from Perreira et al. (2018) recommendations and reported optimal solution for this questionnaire. In a bifactor model all commitment items are used to define a global factor (G-factor) reflecting participant's global level of commitment to their work life. In addition to this global factor, all foci-specific items are also used to define four orthogonal specific factors (S-factors) reflecting the variance uniquely associated with participants' affective commitment to their organization, supervisor, colleagues, and citizens once the G-factor is taken into account. For comparison purposes, we also considered a more typical confirmatory factor analytic (CFA) encompassing four correlated factors representing participants' affective commitment to their organization, supervisor, colleagues, and citizens.

For the predictors and outcomes, we relied on a more classical 9-factor CFA representation of participants' levels of person-organization values fit, perceived support from the organization, in-role performance, OCB directed at the organization, OCB directed at coworkers, OCB directed at improving task execution, turnover intentions, thriving-vitality, and thriving-learning. In this model, each item was only allowed to load on the factor it was assumed to measure, with no cross-loadings allowed, and the factors were allowed to correlate. In this model, because the turnover intention factor was only defined by two items, essentially tau equivalent constraints were imposed on the unstandardized factor loadings associated with these items (they were constrained to equality) to achieve local identification for this factor (Little, Lindenberger, & Nesselrode, 1999).

The adequacy of these alternative solutions was assessed using the following sample-size-independent fit indices (Marsh, Hau, & Grayson, 2005): The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Values smaller than .08 or .06 for the RMSEA, and values greater than .90 or .95 for the CFI and TLI respectively support acceptable and excellent model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2005). We also report omega (ω ; McDonald, 1970) coefficients of composite reliability (Morin, Myers, & Lee, 2018).

For the commitment measure, the a priori bifactor model resulted in an excellent level of fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 203.550$, $df = 42$, $p \leq .01$; CFI = .983; TLI = .974; RMSEA = .043; RMSEA CI = .048 to .059) and in an noteworthy increase in model fit relative to the comparison CFA model ($\chi^2 = 336.075$, $df = 48$, $p \leq .01$; CFI = .970; TLI = .969; RMSEA = .054; RMSEA CI = .048 to .059). The parameter estimates from both models are reported in Table S1 of these supplements. These results reveal well-defined factors for the CFA solution (organization: $|\lambda| = .742$ to $.847$, $\omega = .852$; supervisor: $|\lambda| = .781$ to $.880$, $\omega = .897$; Colleagues: $|\lambda| = .805$ to $.823$, $\omega = .855$; citizens: $|\lambda| = .813$ to $.869$, $\omega = .878$), but equally well-defined specific factors for the bifactor solution (organization: $|\lambda| = .457$ to $.566$, $\omega = .698$; supervisor: $|\lambda| = .627$ to $.860$, $\omega = .884$; Colleagues: $|\lambda| = .688$ to $.790$, $\omega = .828$; citizens: $|\lambda| = .649$ to $.770$, $\omega = .836$) accompanied by a well-defined G-factor ($|\lambda| = .302$ to $.692$, $\omega = .897$)². This bifactor solution was thus retained for the main analyses.

For the predictors and outcomes, the a priori model resulted in acceptable level of fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1933.410$, $df = 370$, $p \leq .01$; CFI = .947; TLI = .937; RMSEA = .045; RMSEA CI = .043 to .047). The parameter estimates from this model are reported in Table S2 of these supplements, and reveal well-defined factors (person-organization values fit: $|\lambda| = .880$ to $.939$, $\omega = .941$; perceived support from the organization: $|\lambda| = .742$ to $.947$, $\omega = .903$; in-role performance: $|\lambda| = .822$ to $.887$, $\omega = .887$; OCB directed at the organization: $|\lambda| = .755$ to $.953$, $\omega = .890$; OCB directed at coworkers: $|\lambda| = .500$ to $.912$, $\omega = .849$; OCB directed at

² Morin, Myers, and Lee (in press) warn against the application of similar interpretation guidelines for bifactor models than one would use for a first order model given that a bifactor model involves the division of the reliable variance present at the item level into two distinct factors. For this reasons, a bifactor model typically results in slightly weaker factors, thus reinforcing the need to rely on analytical methods providing some degree of control for unreliability when adopting a bifactor approach (such as relying on factor scores).

improving task execution: $|\lambda| = .831$ to $.900$, $\omega = .901$; turnover intentions: $|\lambda| = .701$ to $.802$, $\omega = .723$; thriving-vitality: $|\lambda| = .812$ to $.913$, $\omega = .892$; thriving-learning: $|\lambda| = .654$ to $.865$, $\omega = .835$). Correlations among all variables used in this study are reported in Table S3 of these supplements.

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Table S1Standardized Factor Loadings (λ), Uniquenesses, and Composite Reliability for the Commitment Measurement Models

	CFA Loading (λ)	Uniquenesses	Bifactor G-factor λ	S-factor λ	Uniquenesses
<i>Organization</i>					
I am proud to say that I work for my organization	.841	.292	.692	.489	.283
My organization means a lot to me	.847	.282	.696	.457	.306
I don't like working for my organization	-.742	.449	-.527	-.566	.402
ω	.852			.698	
<i>Supervisor</i>					
I like the values conveyed by my immediate supervisor	.781	.390	.521	.627	.336
I feel privileged to work with someone like my immediate supervisor	.921	.151	.341	.860	.145
When I talk to my friends about my immediate supervisor, I describe him/her as a great person to work with	.880	.225	.308	.827	.222
ω	.897			.884	
<i>Colleagues</i>					
I'm happy to work with my colleagues	.805	.351	.404	.688	.363
My colleagues make me feel like going to work.	.823	.322	.302	.790	.284
When I talk about my colleagues to my friends, I describe them as great people to work with.	.815	.336	.391	.709	.344
ω	.855			.828	
<i>Citizens (Customers)</i>					
I really care about the satisfaction of <i>my organization's customers</i> [<i>the citizens</i>].	.838	.298	.469	.688	.306
In my opinion, the satisfaction of <i>my organization's customers</i> [<i>the citizens</i>] is a priority.	.869	.244	.433	.770	.220
Delivering quality products and/or services to <i>my organization's customers</i> [<i>the citizens</i>] is a major source of satisfaction for me	.813	.340	.480	.649	.348
ω	.878		.897	.836	

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p \leq .01$; λ = standardized factor loading; ω = Omega coefficient of composite reliability.

Table S2Standardized Factor Loadings (λ), Uniquenesses, and Composite Reliability for the Predictors and Outcomes Measurement Model

	P-O Values Fit		POS		I-R Perf.		OCB-Org.		OCB-Coworkers		OCB-Tasks		Turnover Int.		Thriv. Vitality		Thriv. Learning	
	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ	λ	δ
Item 1	.880	.225	.742	.449	.822	.324	.755	.430	.500	.750	.831	.310	.701	.508	.812	.341	.654	.572
Item 2	.939	.119	.897	.196	.887	.213	.953	.092	.616	.620	.871	.241	.802	.356	.913	.167	.865	.252
Item 3	.934	.128	.744	.446	.843	.289	.847	.283	.546	.702	.900	.189			.842	.291	.847	.283
Item 4			.947	.103					.638	.593								
Item 5									.904	.183								
Item 6									.912	.168								
ω	.941		.903		.887		.890		.849		.901		.723		.892		.835	

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; λ = standardized factor loading; δ = standardized item uniqueness; ω = Omega coefficient of composite reliability; P-O Value Fit = Person-organization values fit; POS = perceived support from the organization; I-R Perf. = In-role performance; OCB: Organizational citizenship behaviors.

Table S3

Correlations among Study Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Sex																	
2. Rank	.196**																
3. Tenure	.131**	.407**															
4. WAC Global	-.081**	.074**	-.016														
5. WAC Organization	-.082**	.013	-.077**	.484**													
6. WAC Supervisor	.020	.002	-.019	.157**	-.225**												
7. WAC Colleagues	.077**	.062**	-.073**	.167**	-.229**	.139**											
8. WAC Citizens	-.119**	.060**	.179**	.225**	-.218**	-.127**	-.108**										
9. P-O Values Fit	-.080**	.061**	-.041	.558**	.332**	.049*	-.013	.135**									
10. POS	-.004	.070**	-.030	.548**	.355**	.148**	.016	.063**	.504**								
11. I-R Performance	-.168**	.027	.059**	.401**	.114**	.049*	.062**	.321**	.296**	.211**							
12. OCB Tasks	-.078**	.049*	.020	.374**	.121**	.094**	.058**	.226**	.233**	.258**	.617**						
13. OCB Group	.054*	.151**	.138**	.267**	.048*	.038	.069**	.179**	.168**	.178**	.299**	.584**					
14. OCB Organization	.099**	.173**	.158**	.231**	.053*	.015	.004	.164**	.188**	.153**	.213**	.415**	.717**				
15. Turnover Intentions	.012	-.101**	.011	-.502**	-.427**	-.124**	-.182**	.031	-.314**	-.358**	-.167**	-.148**	-.062**	-.031			
16. Thriving-Vitality	-.027	.080**	-.088**	.629**	.302**	.141**	.245**	.121**	.407**	.484**	.423**	.464**	.338**	.246**	-.545**		
17. Thriving-Learning	-.052*	.063**	-.128**	.621**	.307**	.125**	.198**	.131**	.439**	.480**	.441**	.533**	.349**	.286**	-.471**	.826**	

Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; All variables with the exception of sex (0 female, 1 male), rank (1 to 8), and tenure (in years) are estimated from factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; WAC = Workplace affective commitment; P-O Values Fit = Person-organization values fit; POS = perceived support from the organization; I-R. = In-role; OCB: Organizational citizenship behaviors.

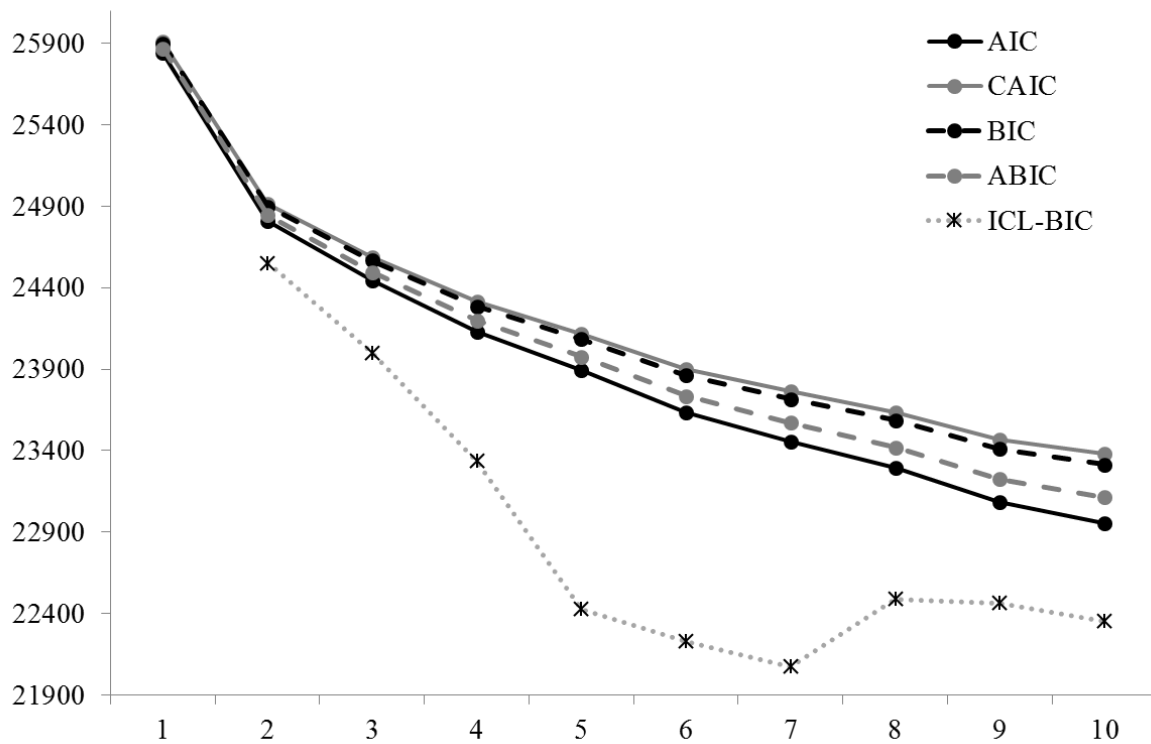


Figure X. Elbow plot of the information criteria for the latent profile analyses.

Table S4

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	Profile 6
Profile 1	.888	0	.053	.015	.003	.042
Profile 2	.000	.871	.051	0	.058	.021
Profile 3	.014	.013	.791	0	.156	.027
Profile 4	.017	0	0	.914	.001	.068
Profile 5	0	.015	.088	0	.867	.029
Profile 6	.026	.007	.041	.028	.080	.819

Note. The profile indicators are estimated from factor scores with mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1; Profile 1 = *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented*; Profile 2 = *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented*; Profile 3 = *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented*; Profile 4 = *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented*; Profile 5 = *Globally Committed: Balanced*; Profile 6 = *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented*.

Table S5

Detailed Results from the Final Latent Profile Analytic Solution

	Profile 1 Mean [CI]	Profile 2 Mean [CI]	Profile 3 Mean [CI]	Profile 4 Mean [CI]	Profile 5 Mean [CI]	Profile 6 Mean [CI]	Variance [CI]
Global Work Life	-1.358 [-1.884; -.832]	-.029 [-.251; .193]	-.154 [-.256; -.052]	-1.159 [-1.642; -.675]	.617 [.491; .743]	-.656 [-.846; -.465]	.315 [.265; .365]
Specific Organization	-.743 [-1.163; -.322]	.590 [.461; .718]	.397 [.269; .525]	-1.874 [-2.136; -1.612]	.179 [.121; .237]	-.615 [-.754; -.477]	.130 [.104; .155]
Specific Supervisor	.561 [.272; .849]	-2.152 [-2.551; -1.754]	-.083 [-.245; .080]	.358 [-.032; .749]	.281 [.190; .371]	-.137 [-.480; .206]	.541 [.459; .624]
Specific Coworkers	.423 [.044; .802]	-.241 [-.539; .058]	-.195 [-.451; .062]	.458 [.097; .819]	.144 [.030; .257]	-.226 [-.590; .137]	.734 [.643; .825]
Specific Citizens	-1.489 [-1.975; -1.003]	.540 [.351; .729]	-.720 [-.819; -.620]	.751 [.231; 1.271]	.308 [.153; .463]	.452 [.260; .643]	.400 [.302; .498]

Note. CI = 95% Confidence Interval. The profile indicators are estimated from factor scores with mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. Profile 1 = *Globally Uncommitted: Workgroup Oriented*; Profile 2 = *Moderately Committed: Organization and Citizens Oriented*; Profile 3 = *Moderately Committed: Organization Oriented*; Profile 4 = *Globally Uncommitted: People Oriented*; Profile 5 = *Globally Committed: Balanced*; Profile 6 = *Globally Uncommitted: Citizens Oriented*.