

DISSERTATION

ARE WE ALL THE SAME? UNPACKING VALUE PROFILES AND THEIR VALIDITY
THROUGH A PERSON-CENTERED LENS

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ABSTRACT

ARE WE ALL THE SAME? UNPACKING VALUE PROFILES AND THEIR VALIDITY THROUGH A PERSON-CENTERED LENS

For several decades, research has shown that values shape key employee attitudes and behaviors. Though dominant in values research, variable-centered approaches analyze values independently, overlooking their inherently interdependent nature. In contrast, person-centered approaches provide a more holistic perspective, uncovering subgroups of individuals who share distinct configurations of values. To understand how values co-occur within individuals, the dissertation applied Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) to identify distinct work value profiles using the Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI). Using Hogan Validation Archive data consisting of 4,710 employees nested within 34 companies, Study 1 uses a non-parametric multilevel latent profile analysis to first identify three distinct individual value profiles – *Transactional Achievers*, who were status- and commerce-driven; *Expansive Achievers*, who were broadly motivated; and *Socially Grounded profiles*, who were prosocial and tradition-oriented. These profiles differed meaningfully in shape and motivational orientations rather than merely in overall level. Study 1 then extended the analysis to the organizational level, revealing two company profiles – *Socially-Dominant*, characterized by a prosocial and tradition-oriented workforce, and *Achievement-Dominant organizations*, characterized by a power-, commerce- and science-driven workforce. Study 1 further validated individual value profiles by examining predictors (gender and job family), criterion-related validity (job performance), and incremental validity over individual values. Profiles were differentially associated with gender only and neither profile significantly

predicted performance beyond individual values. Using two MTurk datasets of 426 employees provided by Hogan Assessment Systems, Study 2 provides partial evidence for the replicability of value profiles and tested work engagement as a mediator linking value profiles to performance. Study 2 also yielded three distinct profiles – *Security-Focused* employees, who were stability- and security-oriented; *Prosocial Thinkers*, who were intrinsically and socially oriented; and *Broadly Motivated* employees, who were motivated across multiple values. The *Broadly Motivated* profile was substantially similar to the *Expansive Achievers* profile with minute differences, while the remaining profiles differed meaningfully across samples. Additionally, engagement significantly mediated the relationship between profile membership and task performance, with the Broadly Motivated profile demonstrating higher engagement, and in turn, better performance relative to the other two profiles. Notably, the current research underscores the importance of using context-specific, work-domain instruments to identify the subgroups of individuals in the workforce. Limitations and implications are discussed.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my parents, Priti and Jitendra Chheda. I could not have made it this far without you. This accomplishment is as much theirs as it is mine. And to every international student who left behind the comfort of home in pursuit of a dream. May this serve as a reminder that your resilience, courage, and perseverance matter.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
DEDICATION	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2: VALUES	6
Values at Work: Contextual Application	7
Construct Clarification.....	8
Values – Behaviors Link	9
CHAPTER 3: VALUES MEASURES.....	12
Measures of Values	12
Schwartz' Values	14
Limitations of Schwartz' Values Framework.....	16
MVPI Values	19
The MVPI: Structure & Applications	20
CHAPTER 4: APPROACHES TO EXAMINE VALUES.....	23
Variable-Centric Approaches	23
Person-Centric vs. Variable-Centric.....	25
Use of LPA to Examine Profiles	26
Value Profiles	28
Incremental Validity of Profiles Over Variables	31
CHAPTER 5: CRITERION-VARIABLE OF INTEREST.....	32
Performance	32
Mechanism Linking Values to Performance	33
CHAPTER 6: HYPOTHESES.....	37
Study 1	37
Study 2	43

CHAPTER 7: STUDY 1 METHOD.....	45
Procedure	45
Participants.....	46
Measures	48
Analytical Procedures	51
CHAPTER 8: STUDY 1 RESULTS	58
Individual Value Profiles (Single-Level LPA; Level 1).....	58
Predictive and Explanatory Validity of Individual Value Profiles	64
Incremental Validity of Value Profiles Over Values	66
CHAPTER 9: STUDY 2 METHOD.....	68
Participants & Procedure	68
Measures	69
Analytical Procedure.....	71
CHAPTER 10: STUDY 2 RESULTS	74
Evidence of Replication: Individual Value Profiles (Single-Level LPA)	74
Mediation Analysis	78
CHAPTER 11: DISCUSSION.....	81
Theoretical Implications	86
Practical Implications.....	90
Limitations and Future Directions	92
CONCLUSION.....	96
REFERENCES	97
APPENDIX: TABLES AND FIGURES.....	109

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Alignment between Schwartz' Values Framework and MVPI Values	109
Table 2 Formulation of Job Performance Variable in Study 1	110
Table 3 Means, SDs, and Correlations of Study Variables – Study 1	111
Table 4 Study 1 Demographic Breakdown	112
Table 5 Model Fit Indices for Individual Values LPA Models – Study 1	113
Table 6 Estimated Indicator Means for 3-Profile Individual Value Solution – Study 1	114
Table 7 Model Fit Indices for Company Profiles LPA Models – Study 1	115
Table 8 Estimated Indicator Means for 2-Profile Company-Profile Solution – Study 1	116
Table 9 Distribution of Demographic Characteristics by Class – Study 1.....	117
Table 10 Mean Comparisons across Latent Class on Performance	118
Table 11 Incremental Validity Evidence of Value Profiles over Individual Value Dimensions	119
Table 12 Means, SDs, and Correlations of Study Variables – Study 2	120
Table 13 Model Fit Indices for Individual Value LPA Models – Study 2.....	121
Table 14 Estimated Indicator Means for 3-Profile Individual Values LPA Model – Study 2	122
Table 15 Mediation Analyses Examining Work Engagement as a Mediator Between Value Profiles-Performance Relationship	123
Table 16 Summary of Hypotheses and Study Findings	124

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Employee Value Profiles (Level 1) – Study 1	126
Figure 2. Estimated Means of Employee Values across a 3-Profile Solution – Study 1	127
Figure 3. Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Company Profiles (Level 2) – Study 1	128
Figure 4. Estimated Means of Company-Level Profiles across a 2-Profile Solution – Study 1	129
Figure 5. Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Employee Value Profiles – Study 2.....	130
Figure 6. Estimated Means of Employee Values across a 3-Profile Solution – Study 2	131

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Values are fundamental cognitive representations of human motivations that guide behavior and decision-making across life domains (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Their transcendental nature allows them to apply across contexts, including work, where they are referred to as work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Work values (e.g., security, tradition) shape a wide range of employee attitudes and behaviors, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, tenure, decision-making, and career choice (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). When employee and organizational values align, known as value congruence, positive outcomes such as satisfaction and commitment tend to increase, whereas misalignment can lead to reduced performance (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). While value congruence has been associated with positive work outcomes, emerging research reveals a more nuanced view. For instance, Seggewiss and colleagues (2019) found that high personal value endorsement predicted stronger commitment regardless of congruence. Similarly, other studies suggest that the level of individual values, rather than value congruence, may better predict outcomes such as job satisfaction, involvement, and turnover (Kalliath et al., 1999; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Thus, while the concept of value congruence holds theoretical appeal, its incremental predictive validity over individual value levels remains inconsistent, as revealed by the variable-centric literature.

Despite these insights, the dominant reliance on variable-centered approaches overlooks within-group heterogeneity (Campbell et al., 2023). Variable-centric approach focuses on patterns and relationships across variables (e.g., averages, correlations), whereas a person-centric approach focuses on identifying groups or profiles of individuals who share similar patterns

across multiple variables. In recent years, organizations have increasingly recognized the need for a more holistic understanding of individuals in the workplace, emphasizing that employees bring complex and interacting characteristics that shape behavior and performance (Campbell et al., 2023). As such, scholars have advocated for a person-centered approach that accounts for these intra-individual combinations (Spurk et al., 2020). Similar calls have emerged in the values literature, particularly in examining value profiles, as distinct configurations of value endorsement may reflect different motivational orientations (Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017). Because values operate as an integrated system, the simultaneous endorsement of certain combinations (e.g., stimulation and tradition) may carry different psychological implications than endorsing either value independently.

Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) provides a robust method for identifying such value profiles by uncovering subgroups within a population based on shared value patterns (Spurk et al., 2020). For example, Magun and colleagues identified a profile characterized by high openness and self-transcendence values and low conservation and self-enhancement values, indicating that individuals in this class prioritize growth and change over self-protection and stability. They also identified another profile marked by high conservation and self-transcendence values, along with moderate levels of openness and self-enhancement. Because conservation and self-transcendence values both emphasize concern for others, social norms, and collective well-being, individuals in this class are more socially oriented and motivated by maintaining social harmony and fulfilling social responsibilities. To capture this complexity, the current study adopts a person-centered approach to explore the structure and implications of work value profiles. In Study 1, because the data is nested, non-parametric multi-level analysis

first identifies the value profiles at the individual level and then classify organizations into higher-level classes based on the distribution of these individual profiles within each company.

After identifying an optimal value profile solution at individual-level, it is essential to establish the validity of the derived profiles to support their substantive interpretation (Li et al., 2019). Spurk and colleagues (2020) outlined several strategies for demonstrating LPA validity: (1) criterion-related validity, by examining how profile membership relates to relevant outcomes; (2) predictor analysis, by identifying factors that influence profile membership; (3) comparisons with continuous latent variable models, to test whether LPA results align with traditional regression approaches; and (4) replicability, by confirming the solution across different samples, contexts, or time points (Woo et al., 2018). Most studies apply only one of these strategies (e.g., Magun et al., 2016), but the current research aims to provide a comprehensive validation of the derived value profiles. First, the Study 1 examines gender and job family as predictors of profile membership. These variables have been identified as important antecedents of work values in the variable-centric literature (Gender: Li et al., 2008; Job family: Shapira & Griffith, 1990). Second, the Study1 investigates criterion-related validity by examining how profile membership relates to performance—a critical outcome for both individuals and organizations (Campbell, 1990). Third, the Study 2 tests the replicability of the profile solution in a second independent sample, following best practices in LPA validation (Spurk et al., 2020).

While a person-centered approach enhances our understanding of how multiple values interact within individuals, its incremental validity over core individual values remains underexplored (Smack et al., 2017). Methodological advancements now allow for nuanced modeling of these complex relationships, but it is essential to examine whether such approaches provide added predictive value (Sechrest, 1963; Cronbach & Gleser, 1957). Given that advanced

models do not always outperform simpler ones in predicting outcomes (as seen in the ongoing debate over value levels vs. congruence; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Seggewiss et al., 2019), the current study addresses this gap by testing whether value profiles predict performance beyond individual values alone. This will clarify whether the profiles are not only descriptively useful but also predictively meaningful. Overall, the current study utilizes four validity strategies to examine the robustness of the derived value profiles.

Although values have long been regarded as key determinants of human behavior (Schwartz, 2012; Bourne & Jenkins, 2013), research directly linking values to performance is limited (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Recent studies have called for a deeper understanding of how values influence performance outcomes (Bourne & Jenkins, 2013; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Schwartz's theory of basic human values (1992; 2012) offers a psychologically grounded framework for understanding why and how values guide behavior. Central to this theory is the conceptualization of values as motivational constructs that express distinct goals and direct human action. Motivation represents the initial intention toward a desired outcome and naturally energizes and guides behavior toward goal attainment (Noels et al., 2019). Empirical research further suggests that Schwartz's human values are related to engagement. Engagement can therefore be understood as the enacted behavioral state that follows motivation (Noels et al., 2012). Moreover, meta-analytic evidence indicates that work engagement is positively and significantly related to job performance (Neuber et al., 2022). Taken together, it could be argued that values, as motivational goals, influence performance indirectly through engagement, and the current study seeks to offer empirical test of this relationship.

In summary, the current research has four primary objectives: (1a) to apply a person-centered approach (LPA) to identify work value profiles at individual-level using Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI) dimensions as indicators and (1b) and then classify organizations into higher-level classes based on the distribution of these individual profiles within each organization; (2) to establish validity evidence for the identified individual-value profiles by examining their relationship with relevant predictors (gender, job family), outcomes (performance), and by testing their replicability across samples; (3) to evaluate the incremental validity of value profiles over individual values in predicting performance; and (4) to examine work engagement as a mediating mechanism linking value profiles to performance outcomes.

CHAPTER 2: VALUES

Values are fundamental cognitive representations of human motivations—abstract, desirable goals that guide behavior and decision-making across life domains (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Though intangible, they act as internal compasses that shape preferences, actions, and life choices (Rokeach, 1973). Scholars have long emphasized the enduring and cross-situational nature of values, highlighting their relative stability and motivational force (Schwartz, 1992) as key drivers in the selection and satisfaction of life roles (Jin & Rounds, 2012). The importance individuals assign to specific values determines the extent to which they act in ways that express and promote those values (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992).

Values exist within a structured system defined by dynamic relations of compatibility and conflict (Schwartz, 1992), which shape how people navigate competing goals and make complex decisions. These interrelations influence not only immediate behaviors but also broader life patterns, such as career paths and political orientations (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). As Rokeach (1973) noted, values are enduring beliefs about preferred modes of conduct or end-states of existence. They serve as evaluative standards, guiding judgments about actions, policies, people, and events, and provide a framework for justification in moral, political, and organizational contexts (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992).

Values are critical because they tend to develop early in life and remain relatively stable over time (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023). This stability is largely attributed to the close link between values and the ideal self-concept. That is, the belief that changing one's values entails redefining one's identity, a process individuals typically resist (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Importantly, values are trans-situational, guiding behavior across contexts. For instance, an individual who values

altruism is likely to demonstrate concern for others in personal relationships, professional settings, community engagement, and political behavior (Schwartz, 1992; Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). This broad applicability underscores the enduring influence of values in shaping long-term behavioral patterns and life trajectories.

Values at Work: Contextual Application

Research consistently demonstrates that values hold explanatory power across multiple life domains (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023), and their transcendental nature allows values to apply across life contexts, with those pertaining specifically to one's occupation referred to as work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Given that work is central to human life and fulfills a range of needs and goals, work values have been described as “salient, basic, and influential” (Ester et al., 2006, p. 92). Because values are conceptually distinct from other individual difference variables (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 2012), they account for unique variance in career-related outcomes.

Dawis and Lofquist (1984) were among the first to extend the study of values to organizational contexts. In their Theory of Work Adjustment, they defined work values as “second-order needs” and identified six dimensions organized into three categories of environmental reinforcers: Self (achievement, autonomy), Social (altruism, status), and Environment (safety, comfort). Similarly, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic values fulfill inherent psychological needs for autonomy and competence, whereas extrinsic values emphasize material aspects such as compensation, job security, and benefits.

Vocational research has traditionally viewed work values as proximal predictors of work-related decisions (Jin & Rounds, 2012). Empirical evidence has supported the predictive role of

work values in outcomes such as vocational aspirations and career choice, job satisfaction, tenure, and decision-making processes (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). In summary, work values represent a critical dimension of individual differences—serving as guiding principles that explain, influence, and predict behavior in professional contexts (Jin & Rounds, 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992).

Construct Clarification

Values are often mistaken for related constructs like attitudes, traits, or goals, but they differ in several critical ways. Unlike traits or attitudes, values are inherently positive and represent deeply held ideals that people view as desirable and important, even when ranked lower in personal priority (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). For example, power values are typically among the least endorsed but are still rated as somewhat important across diverse populations (Schwartz, 1992). This universal desirability makes values uniquely motivating. People not only endorse their values but also see them as closely aligned with their ideal self, more so than personality traits (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Unlike goals or norms, which are often context-specific, values transcend situations and guide behavior consistently across settings (Schwartz, 1992). Beyond guiding personal behavior, values also serve essential social and moral functions. Individuals draw on values not only to explain their actions but also to justify them as meaningful, legitimate, or morally right (Rokeach, 1973). Whereas traits and interests may clarify why people behave in certain ways, values uniquely provide the moral grounding through which individuals rationalize their choices as appropriate or worthy (Rokeach, 1973). These unique features set values apart as a distinct and powerful construct in understanding human behavior.

Values – Behaviors Link

Values are fundamental guiding principles in human life, shaping how individuals think, feel, and act across a wide range of situations. They represent enduring beliefs about what is important and desirable and are central to motivation and identity (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992). Because values are relatively stable individual characteristics and deeply embedded in the self-concept, they serve as critical internal guides for human behaviors (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Eva et al., 2017). Thus, values have been considered important to understand various social-psychological phenomena (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). A substantial body of empirical research indicates that personal values are systematically related to diverse behaviors and behavioral intentions (e.g., conflict resolution, environmental concerns, political voting; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; 2017).

The importance of values has been recognized across many domains of psychological and organizational research (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Jin & rounds, 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). In organizational behavior, values are considered essential for the functioning of both employees and organizations, influencing processes such as socialization, commitment, identification, and performance (Bourne & Jenkins, 2013; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Additionally, in the workplace, values predict several outcomes (e.g., innovation, work engagement, extra-role behaviors; Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Eva et al., 2017; Jin & Rounds, 2012). For instance, conformity values have been found to predict compliance behaviors, while self-direction values relate positively to innovation (Eva et al., 2017).

Importantly, the value-behavior link is not uniform across contexts. For example, Eva and colleagues (2017) found that the relationship between self-direction values and innovation was stronger in less formalized organizations, highlighting the role of contextual factors in

moderating this relationship. Similarly, Lebedeva and colleagues (2019) demonstrated how value-behavior associations can vary across cultural regions, reinforcing the idea that cultural and organizational environments can amplify or constrain the expression of personal values through behavior. Utilizing multi-level modeling, Purc and colleagues (2025) further show how the values of small business entrepreneurs, such as openness to change or conservation, can shape their employees' perceptions of autonomy and subsequently their innovative behaviors.

Schwartz (1992) outlined a multi-step process to explain how values influence behavior, suggesting that values first guide attention; that is, people notice and focus on aspects of situations that are relevant to their prioritized values. Next, values shape how individuals perceive and interpret situations, ultimately guiding their choice of behavior. For example, individuals with strong benevolence values may notice opportunities for cooperation and choose to engage in prosocial behavior, while those high in self-enhancement values may focus on status-related cues and engage in competitive or achievement-oriented actions (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023). According to self-determination theory (SDT; Ryan & Deci, 2000), values that contribute to personal growth and self-actualization (Ryan & Deci, 2000), satisfy the three basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness), that then positively influence subjective well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). A growing body of evidence also demonstrates that individuals act in ways that reflect their values because such actions promote internal consistency (Rokeach, 1973) and help fulfill personal goals and aspirations (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). When behavior aligns with one's values, it fosters a sense of authenticity, self-fulfillment, and well-being (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Despite the breadth of this literature, researchers have highlighted the need for a more integrated

framework to capture the multiple pathways through which values influence behavior (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Bourne & Jenkins, 2013; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; 2017).

Overall, the growing body of research affirms that personal values are powerful predictors of behavior across domains. They function as internal compasses, influencing what individuals perceive, prioritize, and ultimately do. Understanding the values-behavior link is therefore essential for both researchers and practitioners who seek to predict behavior, design interventions, or build environments that align with individuals' core motivations.

CHAPTER 3: VALUES MEASURES

Measures of Values

Over the past several decades, numerous tools have been developed to assess human values, reflecting their central role in psychology, sociology, philosophy, and organizational research. Within psychology, early foundational work by Allport and Vernon (1931) defined values as preferences for various life domains and introduced one of the first empirical tools, the Allport–Vernon Study of Values. Later, Rokeach (1973) refined this approach, defining values as an enduring belief and distinguished between instrumental values (modes of behavior) and terminal values (end goals). His Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) became widely used and inspired many subsequent instruments.

As interest in values has expanded, particularly in the domain of work values, a diverse range of measurement approaches has emerged. These measures include formal psychometric scales (e.g., the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire), informal checklists (Harris-Bowlsbey, 2014), and qualitative analyses of narratives (Savickas, 2014). These methods vary in key aspects such as the number of values assessed, level of abstraction, measurement format (e.g., rating vs. ranking), and definitional clarity (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023). For example, some instruments assess importance of abstract terms (e.g., “equality” or “wealth”), while others, such as the Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz et al., 2001), provide more concrete, person-based descriptions to improve accessibility and relevance across populations. These assessments also vary in length with short questionnaires such as Survey of Social Values and Sentiments (SSVS; Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005) consisting of 10 items, to medium-size instruments consisting of 20-40 items (e.g., PVQ21); to longer questionnaires consisting of more than 50

items (e.g., Schwartz' Values Survey (SVS); Schwartz, 1992). Some instruments employ alternative response formats, such as ranking (RVS; Rokeach, 1973), pairwise comparisons (Personal and Cultural Values (PCVS); Oishi et al., 1998), or best–worst scaling (Social Values and Beliefs World Survey (SVBWS); Lee et al., 2008). In contrast, SVS, uses an asymmetric scale ranging from -1 (“opposing my principles”) to 7 (“of supreme importance”) to better capture the socially desirable nature of most values and their varying importance to individuals (Schwartz, 1992).

Despite these differences, most contemporary value frameworks converge on a limited number of higher-order dimensions, with Schwartz's (1992) theory of basic human values standing out as the most comprehensive and widely validated framework (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Jin & Rounds, 2012); as a result, PVQ and SVS are two popular values measures. Schwartz proposed a circumplex model of ten motivational value types (e.g., achievement, benevolence, conformity, self-direction), organized by underlying motivational conflicts and compatibilities. This dynamic structure highlights how values relate to one another and influence attitudes and behaviors (Schwartz, 1992). A major strength of Schwartz's model lies in its empirical validation across cultures and contexts. Initially tested in 40 samples across 20 countries, the theory has since been supported in more than 70 cultural groups worldwide, making it one of the most robust cross-cultural frameworks in values research (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Schwartz, 1992). The use of this assessment is also supported across occupations (Jin & Rounds, 2012). This universality enables researchers to study values globally using instruments such as the SVS or the PVQ.

In summary, while many different tools exist for measuring values, each with its own strengths and limitations, Schwartz's value framework remains the most widely adopted,

comprehensive, and cross-culturally validated (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Jin & Rounds, 2012; Schwartz, 1992). Its theoretical clarity, empirical rigor, and versatility across diverse populations make it the gold standard for values research, particularly in studies examining the link between personal values and behavior in work and organizational settings.

Schwartz' Values

Schwartz's (1992) Theory of Basic Human Values is one of the most widely adopted and empirically supported frameworks for understanding the structure and function of personal values (Smack et al., 2017). Building on the pioneering work of Rokeach (1973), Schwartz' theory is grounded in three core requirements of human experience: (1) the biological need to survive, (2) social interactional requirements for interpersonal coordination, i.e., humans must interact effectively with others to achieve goals or form relationships or exchange resources, and (3) social institutional demands for group welfare and survival (e.g., world peace, national security). Additionally, it includes six key tenets that define the psychological nature of values (Schwartz, 1992): (1) Values are beliefs linked to affect, meaning when a value is activated, it elicits feelings (e.g., pride, guilt) depending on whether actions align or conflict with that value; (2) values reference desirable goals that assist in motivating action; (3) values transcend specific actions and situations, meaning unlike attitudes or preferences, values can be applied broadly across contexts, guiding consistent patterns of thoughts and action; (4) values serve as standards as people use them to evaluate or justify behaviors; (5) individuals hold multiple values, but they differ in how important each one is; (6) and finally, it is not the presence of a value, but its relative importance compared to other values that predicts actions. As a result, the more central a value is to an individual, the more integral it is to self-identity (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017; Schwartz,

1992), and the stronger its influence over a wide array of attitudes and behaviors (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017).

A crucial feature in Schwartz's framework is that values are motivational constructs. Each value expresses a distinct motivational goal, and these goals underlie why people consider certain things more important than others (Schwartz, 1992). Based on this, Schwartz (1992) identified ten basic value types: power (need for dominance or control), achievement (personal success through demonstrating competence and excellence), hedonism (pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself), stimulation (excitement, novelty, and challenge in life), self-direction (independent thought and action – choosing, creating and exploring), universalism (protection for the welfare of all people and for nature), benevolence (welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact), tradition (respect and commitment of the customs and traditions), conformity (self-restraint in everyday interactions), and security (safety, harmony, and stability of society, relationships, and self).

These ten values are not independent categories but are organized into a circular motivational structure (Schwartz, 1992), where the compatibility or conflict between values is reflected in their spatial arrangement. Adjacent values share similar motivational goals (e.g., universalism and benevolence), while opposing values (e.g., power vs. universalism) reflect conflicting motivations (Schwartz, 1992). This circular model gives rise to two overarching polar dimensions that further group values into four higher-order types: (1) self-enhancement (achievement, power) vs. self-transcendence (universalism, benevolence) – reflecting the contrast between pursuing self-interest versus concern for others. (2) openness to change (self-direction, stimulation) vs. conservation (conformity, tradition, security) – representing the tension between autonomy and novelty versus stability and social order. Hedonism shares elements of

both self-enhancement and openness to change and is in conflict with self-transcendence and conservative values. Rather than treating values as isolated constructs, the circular structure encourages an integrated perspective, where all ten values contribute meaningfully to understanding behavior. Even values unrelated or weakly related to a specific behavior provide insight into its motivational basis. Thus, many researchers study this motivational continuum either as original ten values (Schwartz, 1992) or as the four higher-order values (e.g., Xie et al., 2023).

Schwartz' framework is extensively adopted in social-psychological research for its solid theoretical basis, proven cross-cultural validity, and reliable psychometric support (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017; Schwartz, 1992).

Limitations of Schwartz' Values Framework

Schwartz' theory conceptualizes values as trans-situational goals that guide behavior across contexts, meaning that individuals carry the same underlying value priorities into different life domains such as work, family, and community (Schwartz, 1992; Bardi & Schwartz, 2003), treating values as context-free. Building on Rockeach's view of values as a stable, overarching belief system, Schwartz assumes values shape behaviors broadly rather than situationally, however this assumption has been strongly questioned by several scholars (de Wet et al., 2019). Scholars like De Wet and colleagues (2019) found that while individuals possess a universal set of values, the relative importance they assign to these values can shift across contexts. These authors found support for structural trans-situationality – the overall structure remained stable across contexts but not for item trans-situationality, as Likert-type scale scores given by respondents to each item statistically differed across different life contexts. For example, tradition was prioritized more strongly in family contexts than in academic settings in Austrian

samples (de Wet et al., 2019). These findings challenge the notion that values function identically across situations and suggests that although values are broadly shared across domains, their salience and prioritization are context-sensitive, i.e., context plays a meaningful role in how values are enacted, ranked, and expressed.

These limitations of the trans-situational assumption highlight the need for context-sensitive approaches to value assessment. Instruments grounded in a strictly context-free framework (e.g., PVQ derived from Schwartz' theory) may therefore obscure meaningful variation in how individuals interpret and prioritize values in specific settings, such as work. In organizational contexts, where norms, incentives, and role expectations differ markedly from family or community life, values may take on distinct meanings or motivational significance. Using context-specific instruments (e.g., MVPI) that anchor values to the work domain, such instruments are better positioned to detect variability in value salience and offer a more precise and practically meaningful assessment of values for organizational research and talent management.

Alternatively, the bandwidth-fidelity principle (Cronbach & Gleser, 1957) posits a trade-off between breadth (bandwidth) and precision (fidelity) in psychological measurement: broad, general constructs capture a wide range of behaviors but tend to predict specific outcomes less precisely, whereas narrower, context-specific constructs offer higher predictive accuracy for equally specific criteria. Schwartz's values framework exemplifies a high-bandwidth approach, i.e., values are intentionally defined as broad, trans-situational goals applicable across life domains. This breadth supports cross-cultural generalizability but comes at the cost of reduced fidelity when predicting context-bound outcomes such as workplace performance or engagement; studies have shown low-to-moderate association between generalized, context-free

Schwartz's values and work-specific outcomes (Albrecht et al., 2020). Accordingly, many scholars advocate for the use of work-specific value instruments to enable more valid inferences about how employees' values shape attitudinal, behavioral, and performance-related outcomes (Albrecht et al., 2020; De Wet et al., 2019). This also strengthens content validity of the instrument (Albrecht et al., 2020).

Psychometrically, Schwartz's values instruments (e.g., PVQ, SVS) poses certain limitations such as low internal reliabilities, cross-loadings of items on multiple factors, and multicollinearity issues between adjacent values (Albrecht et al., 2020). Schwartz and colleagues (2012) acknowledged these limitations and noted that the resulting overlap between certain values is a deliberate measurement choice, i.e., items were intentionally written to cover broad, overlapping value content rather than to create neat, statistically independent scales, as his primary goal was to capture the conceptual richness and circumplex structure of values. He optimized for theoretical coverage and cross-cultural comparability of the value continuum rather than for specific use to a single applied domain (e.g., work). The theory treats values as points along a continuous motivational space where adjacent values (e.g., benevolence-universalism) share content and should be correlated. Thus, items were written broadly to reflect that continuity rather than to maximize separation between scales, making it difficult to clearly distinguish specific value effects. These psychometric issues introduce substantial shared variance and construct contamination which may increase noise, undermine discriminant validity, and yield unstable parameter estimates, limiting the precision of inferences about specific value effects (Albrecht et al., 2020).

In summary, these arguments emphasize the need for using a valid, reliable, and context-specific value instrument to measure behaviors in a specific context. As a result, I use MVPI, a

reliable, valid, work-value instrument to measure employees' values and how it relates to engagement and performance.

MVPI Values

While Schwartz's instrument (e.g., SVS) is widely used in academic and cross-cultural research to assess broad, universal motivational constructs, the Motives, Values, and Preferences Inventory (MVPI), developed by Hogan and Hogan (2010), is primarily applied in organizational and leadership contexts (Akhtar et al., 2015). Just like Schwartz' framework, MVPI also defines values as motivational constructs but is specifically designed to assess values as they manifest in workplace settings and is not intended for use with clinical or psychiatric populations (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Given the current study's focus on understanding work value profiles among employees and their link to performance, the MVPI offers a contextually appropriate and practically relevant tool. Like Schwartz' values framework, MVPI incorporates ten values: aesthetics, affiliation, altruism, commerce, hedonism, power, recognition, science, security, and tradition. Table 1 includes the definitions of these values. Additionally, it is a reliable and valid tool and avoid multicollinearity issues by using independent scales, improving discriminant validity (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Unlike Schwartz' values framework, which expects adjacent values to correlate because of the circumplex structure, the MVPI does not assume an integrated circumplex. Instead, it treats values as separable motivational drivers that can be interpreted independently – each value dimension captures a distinct motivational theme relevant to work, allowing for clearer interpretations when MVPI scales are used simultaneously to predict work outcomes.

Importantly, although the MVPI is commonly used in applied settings, it has received limited attention in academic research. This study seeks to bridge the science–practice gap by

employing a practitioner-focused measure while grounding its theoretical framework in the well-established Schwartz Theory of Basic Human Values. Despite differences in origin and application, there is shared theoretical foundation between the two frameworks: both categorize values as motivational forces and have similar structure of ten value dimensions with some value dimensions defined in similar manner (e.g., both frameworks have defined security as a desire for stability). To assess the comprehensiveness and universality of Schwartz's model, De Clercq and colleagues (2008) reviewed 42 values-based instruments and found that 93% of 1,459 value items could be mapped onto Schwartz's ten basic values, demonstrating the model's broad applicability. Although the proprietary nature of the MVPI items prevented their inclusion in that analysis, an internal study conducted by Hogan in 2018 examined correlations between MVPI scales and Schwartz's value dimensions using Mturk participants. Although the results indicate meaningful alignment between the two frameworks, evidenced by medium to strong correlations (Cohen, 1988; see Table 1), they also raise concerns and highlight areas of conceptual ambiguity. Specifically, some value dimensions from Schwartz's framework (e.g., power) did not align with seemingly corresponding MVPI value dimensions (e.g., power), despite an intuitive expectation of correlation. Rather than undermining the findings, this lack of alignment underscores the need to examine the MVPI as a distinct, context-specific value framework, while still acknowledging areas of partial overlap between the two models. Therefore, this research uses the Schwartz model as a theoretical foundation to formulate hypotheses, while employing the MVPI as the measurement tool for assessing work values.

The MVPI: Structure & Applications

The MVPI conceptualizes values as stable motivational constructs that inform an individual's work-related desires, goals, and self-concept (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). The authors

argued that needs, values, and interests overlap substantially and fall along a hierarchy of abstraction with abstract intentional concepts (values) occupying the highest level and concrete manifestation of those intentions (interests) occupying the lowest level; distinguishing among them seems to be a matter of semantics and personal choice. The MVPI goes beyond personality assessments by allowing individuals to describe how they would like to be, thus revealing core motivations and preferences rather than typical behavior (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Thus, the MVPI inventory gets much closer to the content of a person's self-concept than do personality measures. Understanding an individual's core values offers a powerful foundation for advising, managing, and supporting their personal and professional development (Hogan & Hogan, 2010).

The MVPI contains ten value dimensions, derived from over 80 years of theory and research on human motivation. Each scale consists of 20 items measured on a three-point Likert scale ("agree," "uncertain," "disagree") and reflects five thematic components (a) Lifestyles, which concern the manner in which a person would like to live; (b) Beliefs, which involve "should" ideals, and ultimate life goals; (c) Occupational Preferences, which include the work an individual would like to do, what constitutes a good job, and preferred work materials; (d) Aversions, which reflect attitudes and behaviors that are either disliked or distressing; and (e) Preferred Associates, which include the kind of persons desired as coworkers and friends (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Table 1 lists the ten scales along with the definitions.

The measure is purely focused on the work context, and organizations primarily use it for the following three purposes: (1) personnel selection – evaluating person–job or person–organization fit by aligning individual values with organizational culture. For example, someone with high *Altruistic* values may struggle in profit-driven environments, while someone with strong *Security* needs may avoid high-risk industries. (2) Career development – helping

individuals identify career paths aligned with their core motives (e.g., high *Aesthetic* scorers may thrive in creative fields), and (3) leadership and team development – enhancing managerial insight into employee motivations, improving communication, resolving value conflicts, and shaping work environments that align with employee values.

Though limited, researchers have used the MVPI to examine its predictive validity for a range of outcomes including organization strategy and business intelligence (Akhtar et al., 2015), leader performance (Thomas et al., 2001), and risk-behaviors and safety-related outcomes (Furnham, 2022). Lastly, Hogan & Hogan (2010) demonstrates that values are consistent across contexts and are relatively stable over time (as also emphasized by Schwartz, 1992), so, understanding an individual's MVPI profile will provide enduring insights into its behaviors, preferences, and satisfaction at work.

Unlike other assessments, the MVPI measures actual values rather than perceived values (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Actual values reflect the true values an individual holds, often observable through behaviors and measurable in an objective manner. In value congruence research, actual value fit has been shown to be a stronger predictor of task performance (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006), whereas perceived value fit more strongly predicts attitudinal outcomes (Meglino et al., 1989); in this study, performance is the criterion variable. Overall, given the MVPI's widespread use in the workforce, its strong applicability for examining employees' values in work contexts, robust psychometric evidence, and accessibility of data, the current study utilizes this assessment to examine employees' value profiles.

CHAPTER 4: APPROACHES TO EXAMINE VALUES

Variable-Centric Approaches

A variable-centric approach focuses on identifying generalizable relationships between variables across a population, assuming that these variables operate similarly for all individuals (Woo et al., 2024). This framework is widely used in organizational research through methods such as regression, structural equation modeling, and other parametric analyses to capture relationships among variables (Woo et al., 2024). In the study of values, this approach has been used to examine both individual value dimensions (e.g., the extent to which a person endorses specific values) and value congruence (the alignment between an individual's values and those of their organization or team or entity). For more than 70 years, examination of individual value dimensions has played a foundational role in shaping employee attitudes and behaviors such as commitment, performance, and organizational citizenship (Jin & Rounds, 2012).

On the other hand, value congruence is typically defined as the degree of similarity or alignment between the values held by individuals and those held by the environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Schneider, 1987). Several theories have explained the importance of congruence, for example, attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework suggests that individuals are attracted to organizations whose values are similar to their own (Schneider, 1987). This alignment has traditionally been viewed as a crucial factor in predicting several work outcomes (e.g., commitment; satisfaction; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998).

Despite the theoretical reasoning for value congruence to influence work outcomes, a growing body of evidence suggests that individual value levels, rather than congruence, may be the more robust predictor of organizational outcomes (Seggewiss et al., 2019). For instance,

examination of a cross-organizational sample of 1000 employees using polynomial regression with response surface analyses showed that values consistently predicted commitment, whereas value congruence had limited explanatory power (Seggewiss et al., 2019). Similarly, Kalliath and colleagues (1999) showed that the incremental contribution of value congruence over individual values was in the range of 0.90 to 2.20% for organizational commitment and 0.90 to 1.00% for job satisfaction, indicating a lack of support for congruence effects. They argue that holding strong values can enhance self-certainty, leading to a generally more positive work outlook, irrespective of alignment with the organization.

The debate between the relative importance of value congruence versus individual value levels remains active in the literature. Thus, the variable-centric literature paints a complex picture; while value congruence has intuitive and theoretical appeal, empirical support for its incremental validity over individual value levels remains inconsistent. Despite these insights, most studies use variable-centered approaches that overlook within-group heterogeneity (Campbell et al., 2023; Smack et al., 2017). For example, as Magun and colleagues (2016) noted, research examining within- and between-country value diversity has largely relied on mean differences, standard deviations, or other aggregate statistics of individual value variables (e.g., the average German is high on self-transcendence values), resulting in numerous diversity indices that fail to capture the integrated structure of value systems.

A typological, person-centered approach offers a more parsimonious alternative by examining configurations of values simultaneously, allowing for the identification of homogenous subgroups within a population (e.g., a German belongs to a Growth cluster which is characterized by low conservation and self-enhancement values and high self-transcendence and openness to change values). Over the last several years, organizations have recognized the

importance of understanding people holistically, acknowledging that individuals bring a complex array of characteristics to the workplace that can shape their behavior and performance (Campbell et al., 2023), and have discussed the power of taking a person- (vs. variable-) centered approach to understanding people at work (Spurk et al., 2020).

Person-Centric vs. Variable-Centric

The person-centered approach, rooted in early psychological efforts to identify groups of “like-minded” individuals (Woo et al., 2024), focuses on uncovering subgroups of individuals who share similar patterns across multiple variables (Woo et al., 2018). Unlike variable-centered approaches that examine relationships between variables across an entire sample, person-centered modeling emphasizes relations among individuals, revealing unobserved heterogeneity within a population, that is, subpopulations defined by within-group similarity and between-group variability (Woo et al., 2018; Bouckennooghe et al., 2025).

While traditional variable-centered methods such as ANOVA and multigroup SEM can model heterogeneity, they rely on a priori group definitions (e.g., gender). In contrast, person-centered approaches infer subgroups, or latent classes, directly from the data (Woo et al., 2024). This method offers a middle ground between the simplicity of variable-centered models and the individualized precision of person-specific approaches, offering a more nuanced understanding of complex interdependencies among personal and contextual factors (Woo et al., 2024). As such, person-centered analyses detect meaningful within-person configurations and provide a holistic perspective on how personal traits interact with environmental factors, often uncovering novel theoretical insights through inductive reasoning (Woo et al., 2018; 2024).

Although Bouckennooghe and colleagues (2021) noted that person-centered approaches were historically underutilized in applied psychology and management research, their adoption

has grown in recent years (Bouckenooghe et al., 2025). This shift reflects an increasing interest in understanding complex individual profiles within organizational contexts. In values research, similar calls have been made to examine typologies or value profiles (Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017). Accordingly, researchers have applied clustering and latent profile analyses to explore such value configurations (Magun et al., 2016), uncovering insights that would be obscured by purely variable-centered methods.

Variable-centered approaches, though dominant in values research, tend to analyze values independently, overlooking their inherently interdependent nature (Bouckenooghe et al., 2021; Schwartz, 1992). Because values operate as an integrated system, endorsing combinations (e.g., tradition and stimulation) may reflect fundamentally different motivational orientations than endorsing either alone. Despite their potential, person-centered approaches remain underused in values research. As noted by Smack et al. (2017), although values represent a central dimension of human motivation, relatively little is known about how values co-occur and manifest within individuals. In sum, to advance our understanding of values and their effects, there is a strong need to complement existing variable-centered research with person-centered approaches that reveal value configurations. Doing so would allow researchers to identify meaningful subgroups within populations and to better understand how complex value patterns shape workplace attitudes and behaviors, offering a more nuanced and effective view of complexity and variety within organizations (Woo et al., 2018). Hence, one of the goals of this study is to leverage within-person approaches to further our understanding of how value profiles relate to performance.

Use of LPA to Examine Profiles

Among the various within-person modeling methods, latent class analysis (LCA) or latent profile analysis (LPA) are preferred methods to identify latent subpopulations characterized by distinct configurations of scores on a set of indicators (LCA for categorical indicators and LPA for continuous; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002; Spurk et al., 2020). While k-means clustering techniques have been used in the past to examine value typologies, K-means is sensitive to outliers, and the decision to identify profiles (also known as clusters in this case) is arbitrary (Schreiber & Pekarik, 2014). In contrast, LPA is a statistical model that allows researchers to test and compare different group solutions statistically, is non-reliant on common assumptions such as normality and linearity and is a critical method in identifying subgroups (Garstein et al., 2017; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002; Xie et al., 2023). Additionally, many other analytical techniques such as latent transition analysis are built on LPA's foundational principles, making it essential to have a solid understanding of LPA (Bouckennooghe et al., 2025).

The purpose of LPA is to reduce data to a reasonable number of classes, identifying subpopulations based on a certain set of variables (Woo et al., 2024), which are meaningful both in terms of statistical saliency and theoretical interpretability (Schmidt et al., 2021). This method characterizes structural parsimony, inferring profiles based on shared attributes within the data. It is a flagship model within the person-centered approach (Spurk et al., 2020; Woo et al., 2024) and has deepened theoretical and practical applications in applied psychology and management research (Bouckennooghe et al., 2025); to exemplify, LPA aided in targeted retention strategies by identifying employee subgroups based on commitment types (Meyer & Morin, 2016) and in informing tailored career support by identifying different adaptability profiles (Hirschi & Valero, 2017). A systematic review and synthesis of 37 studies demonstrated LPA has growing acceptance as a tool to capture complex profiles within organizational settings (Woo et al., 2018),

including to study specific profiles of individual differences including personality and values (Magun et al., 2016; Spurk et al., 2020).

Additionally, LPA offers significant practical value by generating insights that are both easily interpretable and directly relevant to organizational contexts (Ng et al., 2025). Unlike traditional methods that rely on sample averages or demographic comparisons, LPA identifies hidden subgroups within data based on shared response patterns, revealing nuanced differences that would otherwise remain obscured. For example, in organizational commitment research, scholars have traditionally calculated mean scores for each of the three commitment dimensions—*affective* (i.e., emotional attachment to the organization), *normative* (i.e., a sense of obligation to the organization), and *continuance* (i.e., awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization) commitment—across the full sample (Meyer & Morin, 2016). However, LPA demonstrated that employees may exhibit unique combinations of these dimensions; for instance, a “morally committed” profile characterized by above-average affective and normative commitment but below-average continuance commitment, offering a richer understanding of workforce dynamics (Meyer & Morin, 2016). This approach enables researchers to present multiple subgroup profiles rather than a single aggregate score, providing a more accurate representation of individual experiences. As Meyer and Morin (2016) note, this holistic, person-centered perspective enhances the practical relevance of research and strengthens communication between scholars and organizational stakeholders. By examining value profiles using the ten MVPI dimensions as indicators and applying LPA as the analytical approach, this study aims to generate practical insights for organizations that use the MVPI assessment to inform talent selection, retention, and development practices.

Value Profiles

As mentioned earlier, psychologists have frequently used LPA to examine profiles of individual differences among employees within a sample (Magun et al., 2016; Spurk et al., 2020). However, these studies have primarily relied on Schwartz's value dimensions as indicators. Given the limited academic research on the MVPI and its strong correlation with Schwartz's value framework, I draw on these studies to inform my understanding of commonly observed value profiles. Based on these findings, I develop hypotheses regarding the value profiles expected to emerge using the MVPI as the selected value assessment.

Magun and colleagues (2016) analyzed data from 55,532 participants across 29 European countries using Schwartz's PVQ-21 (Schwartz et al., 2001) as indicators. They identified five distinct value profiles including growth-oriented, strong social focus, weak social focus, weak personal focus, and strong personal focus profiles. Overall, the findings highlight meaningful cross-national variations in how value systems cluster across Europe, revealing that value orientations tend to align along social versus personal focus dimensions with differences between countries found in the probabilities of Growth class. These latent profiles provide a more nuanced understanding of value diversity across European populations than traditional mean-based comparisons. In the follow-up study, Rudnev and colleagues (2016) demonstrated the robustness of these five value typologies across Europe.

Smack and colleagues (2017) used Schwartz' 57-item SVS to examine scores on ten universal values used as indicators to identify value profiles among 1,308 racially and ethnically diverse U.S. college students. They revealed two classes – a personal-focused group high in stimulation, self-direction, and hedonism, and a social-focused group high in conformity and tradition. The two classes differed by racial/ethnic composition, gender distribution, and associated personality traits, aligning with prior research on value-based individual differences.

Similarly, Xie and colleagues (2023) applied LPA to 8,540 Chinese college students using the 48-item PVQ, identifying five profiles based on Schwartz' second-tier value dimensions (i.e., openness to change, self-transcendence, conservation, and self-enhancement). Classes ranged from traditional social orientation (high collectivistic values) to open personal orientation (high individualistic values), with others reflecting combinations of traditional and modern values. This pattern highlights the coexistence of collectivistic and individualistic orientations in contemporary Chinese culture.

Finally, Schmidt and colleagues (2021) extended work on European populations and identified an eight-profile solution based on the ten universal values. They applied two different algorithms that converged on similar results – Variational Bayesian and Maximum Likelihood LPA. Similar to past findings, they identified personal- and social-focused profiles, but also observed increasingly nuanced subtypes as the number of cluster solutions increased – splitting prior “growth” profiles into two distinct variations, revealing additional, theoretically meaningful value typologies. While increasing the number of clusters reduced cluster sizes, it enhanced interpretive richness (Schmidt et al., 2021). Accordingly, Schmidt et al. (2021) recommend that researchers explore higher cluster solutions to identify potentially meaningful subtypes before determining the optimal number of profiles. Their findings underscore the importance of balancing statistical fit and theoretical interpretability when selecting an optimal profile solution.

Overall, the optimal LPA solution appears to depend on the specific value instrument used (e.g., SVS as in Smack et al., 2017; PVQ as in Magun et al., 2016), the choice of indicators (e.g., the ten universal values as in Smack et al., 2017, or second-tier value dimensions as in Xie et al., 2023), and the method of score computation (e.g., inclusion of a method factor as in Magun et al., 2016 or the use of CFA scores as in Schmidt et al., 2021). Despite these

methodological differences, person-focused and social-focused profiles consistently emerged across studies. Given the strong correspondence between the Schwartz and MVPI value frameworks, I anticipate that similar person- and social-focused profiles will appear in the LPA of MVPI values.

Incremental Validity of Profiles Over Variables

Given the growing application of person-centered approaches in predicting outcomes, it is important to assess their incremental validity, that is, the extent to which they add explanatory power beyond traditional methods (Smack et al., 2017). As Sechrest (1963) emphasized, incremental validity provides evidence that a test contributes additional predictive value beyond existing data sources; similarly, Cronbach and Gleser (1957, p. 31) stated that “tests should be judged on the basis of their contribution over and above the best strategy available.” Despite this importance, there is a lack of incremental validity examination of person-centered methods. For example, Smack and colleagues (2017) highlighted the need to investigate both the incremental validity and practical utility of the LPA model. One notable exception is Rosellini and Brown (2014), who demonstrated that LPA explained unique variance in anxiety and mood disorder outcomes beyond DSM-based classifications (variable-centric approach). Using seven dimensional indicators of self-reported emotional disorder vulnerabilities and transdiagnostic phenotypes, they identified six distinct latent classes. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that these LPA-derived class probabilities explained additional variance in outcomes beyond DSM diagnostic categories, indicating that the LPA approach provides added predictive and conceptual value. Drawing from this framework and using the same analytical approach, the present study seeks to examine whether value profiles offer incremental explanatory power over individual values in predicting performance outcomes.

CHAPTER 5: CRITERION-VARIABLE OF INTEREST

Performance

Job performance is defined as the employees' behaviors and actions that contribute to the goals of the organization (Campbell, 1990). It is considered the ultimate criterion if it encompasses all aspects of performance that ultimately defines success on the job (Thorndike, 1949). Nonetheless, it is often considered as a central variable by organizational researchers (Varela & Landis, 2010). Despite its critical role in the workplace, job performance was historically under-theorized, leading to what became known as the "criterion problem" – the challenge of clearly defining and accurately measuring performance (Austin & Villanova, 1992). Campbell (1990) made a pivotal contribution by shifting the focus from performance outcomes to behaviors, arguing that performance should be assessed based on observable actions that align with organizational objectives rather than on results or personal attributes.

Following Campbell's framework, researchers increasingly viewed job performance as a multidimensional construct (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Among the most influential models is Campbell's (1990) activity-based taxonomy, which organizes job performance into eight core dimensions. These include: (1) job-specific task proficiency (JSTP), referring to activities unique to a specific role; (2) non-job-specific task proficiency (NJSTP), involving general tasks common across roles; (3) written and oral communication; (4) demonstrating effort, or the persistence and intensity of work behaviors; (5) maintaining personal discipline, which captures adherence to organizational norms; (6) facilitating peer and team performance, emphasizing collaboration and interpersonal support; (7)

supervision and leadership, which entails directing and influencing others' work; and (8) management and administration, focusing on resource coordination to achieve goals.

Campbell's (1990) model stands out for its comprehensiveness and parsimony (Varela & Landis, 2010). By conceptualizing performance at a higher-order level, it captures essential aspects of workplace behavior. Although not all roles require every dimension, the model is generalizable across a wide range of occupations and work settings (Varela & Landis, 2010). In this study, I adopt Campbell's (1990) model as the guiding framework for job performance. Specifically, I map the supervisor-rated dimensions of job performance in my dataset to the relevant components of Campbell's taxonomy. This allowed me to define and operationalize job performance as the criterion variable in a theoretically grounded and methodologically rigorous way.

Mechanism Linking Values to Performance

Although values have long been recognized as central determinants of human behavior (Schwartz, 2012; Bourne & Jenkins, 2013), research examining the direct relationship between values and performance remains limited (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Recent research has increasingly emphasized the need to understand how values influence performance outcomes (Bourne & Jenkins, 2013; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Specifically, attitudes and motivational processes have been proposed as mediators in the relationship between values and behavior (Schwartz, 2012).

Schwartz's theory of basic human values (1992) offers a psychologically grounded framework for understanding why and how values guide behavior. At the core of this theory is the idea that values are motivational constructs that express distinct goals and direct human action. More importantly, Schwartz and colleagues (2012) theorize that growth/anxiety-free

values such as openness to change and self-transcendence are related to autonomous-intrinsic motivation. Openness to change values relate to psychological needs for mastery and variety, while self-transcendence values relate to needs for affiliation. Self-protection or anxiety-avoidance values such as self-enhancement and conservation should be related to controlled-extrinsic motivation. Self-enhancement values are related to extrinsic needs of wealth and social recognition and conservation values are related to following rules, avoiding social violations or getting protection and attention. Thus, regardless of their orientation, values function as motivational forces that energize and direct behavior.

Motivation represents the initial intention toward a desired outcome, naturally energizing and guiding behavior to achieve that outcome (Noels et al., 2019). When employees' actions align with their central values, they become more engaged. Empirical research shows that Schwartz' human values relate to engagement. Specifically, studies have shown that values emphasizing openness to change, such as self-direction and stimulation, as well as self-enhancement values such as achievement and power, are positively associated with work engagement (Agras & Ates, 2015; Arthaud-Day et al., 2023). Individuals who value openness to change tend to prioritize autonomy, novelty, and diversity, which serve as intrinsic motivators and are strongly linked to engagement (Agras & Ates, 2015; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Likewise, self-enhancement, though theoretically recognized as extrinsic motivation, is positively related to engagement because striving for and attaining success in tasks enhances vigor, dedication, and absorption, motivating individuals to remain actively involved and perform better (Agras & Ates, 2015). Self-transcendence values, particularly benevolence, have also been found to positively influence engagement, as individuals with these values often view work as a core part of their identity and as an opportunity to make positive social contributions (Arthaud-Day et al., 2023).

As a result, these individuals are intrinsically motivated to put more effort and time on tasks and bring them to completion.

In contrast, values associated with conservation (conformity, tradition, and security) tend to reflect resistance to change and a preference for stability (Schreurs et al., 2014). While a significant relationship between conservation values and engagement is not found, theoretically, these values may dampen intrinsic motivation and, in turn, engagement (Schwartz et al., 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). It is important to recognize that employees may simultaneously pursue both intrinsic and extrinsic work values, and that extrinsic values are not inherently linked to negative outcomes, unless they overshadow or undermine intrinsic motivation (Schreurs et al., 2014). Similarly, I propose that intrinsic work values function as personal resources that facilitate engagement, and an overemphasis on extrinsic values may reduce the energizing impact of engagement by prioritizing external rewards over intrinsic fulfillment.

Engagement can thus be understood as the enacted behavior that follows motivation, with motivation serving as its antecedent (Noels et al., 2019). More importantly, Schwartz (1992) conceptualizes values as inherently motivational, defining them as desirable goals that vary in importance and guide behaviors across situations. When individuals are able to pursue and express their core values through their work, this alignment activates psychological investment in the job, a state consistent with work engagement (Kahn, 1990). Thus, individual value profiles may predict engagement.

Furthermore, meta-analytic evidence indicates that engagement is positively and significantly related to job performance (Neuber et al., 2022). Engagement fosters higher performance because engaged employees demonstrate sustained energy and resilience (vigor), strong commitment to their work (dedication), and full immersion in tasks (absorption). Taken

together, Schwartz's values framework suggests that value, as motivational goals, can influence performance indirectly via engagement.

In summary, by leveraging Schwartz's theory of basic human values, I predict that values profiles influence job performance through their impact on work engagement, and that the nature of this mediating pathway depends on the distribution of work values within a profile.

CHAPTER 6: HYPOTHESES

The main objectives of the current study are: 1a) to apply a person-centered approach (LPA) to identify work value profiles at individual-level using MVPI dimensions as indicators and 1b) classify organizations into higher-level classes based on the distribution of these individual profiles within each company; (2) to establish validity evidence for the identified individual value profiles by examining their relationship with relevant predictors (gender, job family), outcomes (performance), and by testing their replicability across samples; (3) to evaluate the incremental validity of value profiles over individual values in predicting performance; and (4) to examine work engagement as a mediating mechanism linking value profiles to performance outcomes. This dissertation incorporates two studies as Study 1 focuses on the first three goals and the Study two primarily focuses on the last goal while also focusing effort on the second objective. Overall, the research consists of four research questions and five hypotheses. Research questions 1 – 4 and hypotheses 1 and 2 are examined in Study 1; hypotheses 3 – 5 are examined in Study 2. In this section, I outline the rationale behind each research question and hypothesis.

Study 1

Person-centered approaches capture the unique value combinations and provide richer, more actionable insights, compared to variable-centered approaches (Smack et al., 2017; Bouckenoghe et al., 2021). Although effective in other domains (e.g., commitment profiles; Meyer & Morin, 2016), such approaches remain underused in values research. As Smack and colleagues (2017) note, although values are a central aspect of motivation, little is known about how they co-occur within individuals. Recent work in values research has called for moving

beyond traditional approaches to embrace person-centered methods like LPA (Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017). Studying value profiles through LPA offers a holistic lens, uncovering how different configurations of value profiles relate to antecedents and outcomes. The findings may reveal behavioral patterns that would be masked in variable-centered analyses, such that employees best captured by one type of values profile potentially behave differently than those in other profiles.

Past studies utilizing Schwartz' value framework have found two (Smack et al., 2017), five (Magun et al., 2016) or eight (Schmidt et al., 2021) profile solutions. These findings varied depending on the specific value instrument used (e.g., SVS as in Smack et al., 2017; PVQ as in Magun et al., 2016), the choice of indicators (e.g., the ten universal values as in Smack et al., 2017, or second-tier value dimensions as in Xie et al., 2023), and the method of score computation (e.g., inclusion of a method factor as in Magun et al., 2016 or the use of CFA scores as in Schmidt et al., 2021). Despite these methodological differences, person-focused and social-focused profiles consistently emerged across studies. Typically, person-focused profiles consisted of high stimulation (MVPI: hedonism), self-direction (MVPI: aesthetics and science), hedonism (MVPI: hedonism), achievement (MVPI: power) and power (MVPI: commerce and recognition), and low tradition (MVPI: tradition) and conformity (Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2023). In contrast, social-focused profiles consisted of high conformity and tradition (MVPI: tradition) and low self-direction (MVPI: aesthetics and science), stimulation (MVPI: hedonism), and hedonism (MVPI: Hedonism; Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2023).

Additionally, LPA can yield either qualitative or quantitative profiles. Qualitative profiles reflect shape differences, meaning that some indicators have above-average sample means while

others fall below average in one profile; these patterns that may reverse across other profiles (Spurk et al., 2020). In contrast, quantitative profiles indicate level differences, where all indicators within a profile are consistently high (above the sample mean) or low relative to other profiles (Spurk et al., 2020). LPA can range from a fully exploratory approach, where no assumptions are made about the number or nature of profiles, to a confirmatory approach with clearly specified hypotheses regarding the number and structure of profiles (Spurk et al., 2020). Notably, no published research on value profiles appears to have utilized the MVPI to assess values that I am aware of. Given the shared theoretical foundation conceptualizing values as motivational forces, similar structure of ten value dimensions in both frameworks, and having some overlap in core value dimensions (e.g., security appears in both frameworks and is defined the same way as having a desire for stability), I anticipate the emergence of similar person-focused and social-focused profiles in an LPA of MVPI values. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the MVPI is a context-specific values instrument, designed specifically to assess work-related values, which is why it is crucial to start with the research question, and also to inquire if LPA of MVPI results in either or both qualitative and quantitative profiles. Accordingly, I propose the following research question and hypotheses.

RQ1: Are there quantitatively and qualitatively distinct profiles of employees' values?

H1a: A profile will emerge in a single-level LPA of individual values that is person-focused class, characterized by those who place greater importance on MVPI values relating to hedonism, aesthetics, science, and power, and less emphasis on tradition.

H1b: A profile will emerge in a single-level LPA of individual values that is social-focused class, characterized by those who place a higher emphasis on MVPI values relating to tradition and less emphasis on aesthetics, science, and hedonism.

When designing LPA studies, it is crucial to consider how the resulting profiles will be validated (Spurk et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019). Without evidence of how these profiles relate to relevant covariates, such as predictors or outcomes, or whether they replicate across samples, the substantive interpretation of latent profiles remains limited (Li et al., 2019). Several strategies exist for establishing validity evidence in LPA. One common approach involves testing predictors of profile membership (Spurk et al., 2020).

In the context of values research, gender is considered an important antecedent of work values (Li et al., 2008) and has been widely explored, though findings are often mixed (Smack et al., 2017). For example, research generally finds that men tend to prioritize self-enhancement values such as power and achievement, while women emphasize self-transcendence values such as universalism and benevolence (Rokeach, 1973; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). However, studies have also found no significant gender differences (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017); these contradictory findings are limited to variable-centric approaches. Using a person-centered approach, Smack and colleagues (2017) examined gender as a predictor of class membership. Their findings showed that men were more likely to belong to a person-focused group, characterized by high endorsement of power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction. Conversely, women were more likely to belong to a social-focused group, marked by high levels of conformity, tradition, and benevolence, consistent with earlier findings (e.g., Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; 2017). Based on these patterns, I expect to observe similar gender-based tendencies in my study: men being more likely to belong to a person-focused profile and women to a social-focused profile.

Beyond gender, job family (i.e., a group of related jobs that involve similar types of work and require comparable skills, knowledge, and expertise, e.g., sales, administration) differs in the

types of values emphasized. Across job groups, Shapira and Griffith (1990) observed that engineers and managers are known to leave their mark on the job and demonstrate higher values of pride and involvement in work. In contrast, production and clerical workers place higher importance to values in relation to extrinsic motivation such as pay and monetary incentives. This predictor has not been widely studied in LPA and thus I aim to examine job family as a novel predictor of value profile membership. Accordingly, I propose the following hypotheses and research question.

H2a: Men will demonstrate a higher probability of membership in the person-focused individual value profile.

H2b: Women will demonstrate a higher probability of membership in the social-focused individual value profile.

RQ2: How does job family predict individual values profile membership?

An alternative approach is to assess criterion-related validity by examining mean differences across latent profile groups in relation to theoretically-relevant outcomes (Spurk et al., 2020). Depending on assumptions about causality, these outcome variables may be measured at a later time point, with baseline levels potentially controlled for through autoregressive effects if collected concurrently with the LPA indicators. In terms of values research, Xie et al (2023) demonstrated that compared to the other four profiles, social-oriented value profiles had a positive relationship with mental health and life satisfaction. In contrast, students in personal orientation profiles reported high mental health disorders and low life satisfaction. Despite the lack of examination of value profiles predicting job performance, variable-centric studies show that varying work values predict job performance, such that intrinsic work values exhibit higher performance than extrinsic work values (Shapira & Griffith, 1990). The current study examines

value profiles' effect on job performance to gain a better understanding of its effect in the workplace.

RQ3: How does the job performance differ across individual value profiles?

To assess the validity of LPA results, researchers have also compared them to findings from continuous latent variable models, for example, by examining whether differences in outcomes across latent profiles align with those found in regression analyses based on a single population distribution (Spurk et al., 2020). Despite these comparisons, the direct evidence of incremental validity is limited (e.g., Smack et al., 2017). Conducting an incremental validity test is essential to determine whether value profiles derived from LPA offer predictive utility beyond traditional, variable-centered approaches. While LPA provides a holistic perspective by examining how multiple values interact within individuals, its incremental validity in predicting outcomes such as performance remains underexplored. As Sechrest (1963) emphasized, a key criterion for evaluating any new method is whether it contributes additional predictive value beyond existing data sources. Similarly, Cronbach and Gleser (1957) argued that new approaches should be judged based on their added contribution beyond the best available strategy. Despite increasing interest in person-centered approaches, I found only one study that empirically tested the incremental validity of LPA solution (Rosellini and Brown, 2014), which showed that LPA of transdiagnostic phenotypes explained unique variance in emotional disorder outcomes beyond traditional DSM classifications, supporting its added conceptual and predictive value. Building on this framework, the present study aims to test whether value profiles add explanatory power over core individual values in predicting employee performance—clarifying whether these profiles are not only descriptively insightful but also predictively meaningful.

RQ4: Do individual value profiles (person-centric approach) explain additional variance in employee performance above and beyond the predictive power of individual values (variable-centric approach)?

Study 2

Finally, an important approach to validating the final profile solution derived from LPA is to examine its replicability across different samples, contexts, and time points (Woo et al., 2018). In their systematic review, Spurk et al. (2020) found that 39.1% of studies replicated the LPA solution with a different sample, and 6.5% at a different time point. Of these, 81.0% fully replicated their initial results, while 9.5% achieved partial replication. To align with best practices in LPA validation, the current study will re-examine the latent profiles using a second sample. It is anticipated that the value profiles identified in Study 2 will be similar to those found in Study 1.

H3: The number and composition of individual value profiles identified in Study 2 will be similar to those identified in Study 1.

Although values are well-established as central drivers of human behavior (Schwartz, 2012), their direct link to performance remains limited (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006), prompting a growing interest in uncovering the underlying mechanisms through which values influence performance outcomes (Bourne & Jenkins, 2013; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). According to the Schwartz's theory of basic human values (1992), regardless of intrinsic or extrinsic orientation, values function as motivational forces that energize, drive engagement, and direct behavioral outcome. Accordingly, I hypothesize the following:

H4: Work engagement mediates the relationship between individual value profiles and task performance.

Schwartz and colleagues (2012) labelled openness to change and self-transcendence values as intrinsic motivation, and self-enhancement and conservation values as extrinsic motivation. Theoretically, extrinsic motivation is known to undermine engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2012; Schwartz et al., 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Mapping Schwartz' values to MVPI values, it appears that a value profile high on tradition, security, power, and recognition will be negatively associated with engagement, compared to other value profiles.

H5a: Work engagement will mediate the negative relationship between all the individual value profiles high on tradition, security, power, and recognition and task performance.

H5b: Work engagement will mediate the positive relationship between all the individual value profiles low on tradition, security, power, and recognition and task performance.

CHAPTER 7: STUDY 1 METHOD

Procedure

The data analyzed in this study comes from a larger research initiative carried out by Hogan Assessment Systems (2022) to evaluate the effectiveness of its pre-hire assessments. As part of these validation efforts, Hogan collaborates with client organizations to collect job-performance information and assessment results from current employees solely for research purposes. The Hogan validation archive (Hogan Assessment Systems, 2022) currently holds 251 criterion-related validation studies (total $N = 53,851$) conducted in various jobs, organizations, industries, and across countries.

All primary study samples consist of only working adults who have completed the focal personality measures and have supervisor ratings on a subset of 62 performance dimensions included in the Hogan Competency Model (HCM; Hogan Assessment Systems, 2021). Participants in this sample completed Hogan's three major assessments: the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI), the Hogan Development Survey (HDS), and the Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI). All testing was conducted remotely using Hogan's online platform. The assessments were not proctored and had no time limits, although respondents were advised to answer based on their immediate impressions rather than deliberate extensively. Only scores from the MVPI are included in the present analyses. All studies also assessed at least one competency via other-ratings (e.g., supervisor-ratings). These competencies are based on the 62 HCM that are job-related. Ninety-nine percent of these performance ratings are rated by employees' supervisors/managers. Those not rated by their direct supervisors or managers and

the competencies that do not map to Campbell's (1990) job performance model are excluded from this study.

Participants

From this archive, I initially identified $k = 208$ criterion-related validation studies, with an overall sample of $N = 35,281$, with an average of 168 working adults per study. Because I had planned to examine country as one of the predictors of profile membership, I excluded participants who reported their location as multinational to reduce noise or ambiguity, and studies that had a sample size of less than 50 to ensure decent representation of each country. Though arbitrary, without this criterion, some countries were represented by only a single participant, resulting in extremely sparse categories for the country predictor and thereby threatening the interpretability and robustness of estimated country effects.

Additionally, the degree of clustering in the data was measured by the intraclass correlation (ICC) which measures the proportion of variance in the outcome variable that is explained by the grouping structure of the hierarchical model (e.g., employees within company; Cohen et al., 2013; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). The ICC ranges from .00 to 1.00 where .00 represents complete independence of observations and 1 represents complete dependence of observations; values higher than .05 are typically considered sufficient to necessitate multilevel modeling due to alpha inflation that results from dependency in nested data (Cohen et al., 2013; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Upon calculating ICC, it was observed that this proposed sample was not only nested within companies ($ICCs: .09 - .20$), but also nested within location (i.e., countries), creating a multilayer clustering problem. To mitigate this issue, I attempted to restrict the sample to one industry that had the largest sample size ($N = 2,038$, $k = 15$), nested within 11 companies. Despite this, insufficient number of clusters (minimum reported in prior work is 25;

Finch & French, 2014) made multi-level LPA not a feasible solution, and because the data was nested within companies, single-level LPA was not a practical analytical solution either. Additionally, the revised sample did not allow the performance variable to be computed as proposed as communication was excluded due to insufficient variance.

Hence, the final sample is restricted to only one country (United States), with an initial overall sample of $N = 10,616$. The final sample size was achieved after a few filters. Inclusionary criteria included employees who participated in MVPI assessment, were at least 18 years old, provided correct selections of response options with attention checks (labeled as Bossfilter = pass in the dataset) and that had supervisory ratings of performance dimensions aligned to Campbell's (1990) model of job performance. Participants who did not have their performance rated by their direct supervisor/manager (i.e., study no.11254) were excluded. Further, after excluding companies with missing values on all MVPI indicators, the final sample consists of 4710 employees, nested within 34 companies, with an average of 131 employees per company.

The majority of this sample was men (60.52%), followed by 29.26% women and 10.22% unreported. Participants were on average 40.46 years old ($SD = 10.13$). This sample includes data from six job families with managers and executives (37.79%) being the majority, followed by sales and customer support (18.50%), service and support (11.93%), professionals (11.52%), technicians and specialists (6.62%), and administrative and clerical (5.16%). Ethnicity was measured inconsistently, even within the U.S. sample, and therefore is not included as a demographic variable in Study 1.

Though the most rigorous way of dealing with sample size issues would be to conduct Monte Carlo simulations to determine the power of specific sample sizes (Woo et al., 2018), estimating power for LPA is a complex issue as it depends on population parameter values for

simulation that should be informed by prior research, which is not often available (Spurk et al., 2020). Spurk and colleagues (2020) found that researchers have used a samples of 131 to 16,280 previously. Nylund and colleagues (2007) concluded that a minimum sample size of about 500 should lead to enough accuracy in identifying a correct number of latent profiles. Thus, sample size is not an issue for Study 1. Furthermore, after multiple iterations, the final Study 1 sample resolves the analytical issues present in earlier proposed samples, as the adequate representation of both companies and employees within those companies make non-parametric multilevel latent profile analysis (MLPA) a suitable analytical solution.

Measures

Values

The Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI; Hogan & Hogan, 2010) was used to assess employees' core values relevant to workplace behavior. Originally published by Hogan Assessment Systems in 1996 and revised in 2010, the MVPI was developed based on taxonomies similar to values and interests (e.g., Holland, 1966) to measure motivational drivers in occupational contexts.

Designed for working adults, the MVPI consists of 200 items across 10 value dimensions: Aesthetics, Affiliation, Altruistic, Commerce, Hedonism, Power, Recognition, Science, Security, and Tradition. The MVPI takes approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Respondents answer using a 3-point scale (1 = "disagree," 2 = "uncertain," 3 = "agree") and each scale consists of 20 items, so scale scores range from 20 to 60. There is no need for faking keys as there are no correct or incorrect responses for these MVPI scales (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). The Flesch-Kincaid reading level analysis indicates that the assessment is written at a third-grade reading level with an average sentence length of 9.70 words. Thus, the items are easy to

understand and are face valid (Feltham & Loan-Clarke, 2007). The MVPI is not a medical examination and is not intended for clinical or psychiatric use or to determine physical or mental disabilities. MVPI scale definitions are presented in Table 1.

The MVPI technical guide by Hogan Assessments demonstrates the strong psychometric properties of MVPI, with test-retest reliabilities ranging from .64 to .88 ($M = 0.79$) and internal consistency estimates between .70 and .84 (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Additionally, all scales have about three meaningful correlations with other scales. The only inverse relation in the matrix is the correlation of -.30 between Hedonistic and Tradition, which is because these values represent theoretically opposing motivations (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). Hedonism reflects a preference for fun, excitement, variety, and a “work hard, play hard” lifestyle. Tradition, by contrast, emphasizes adherence to customs, history, duty, and preserving established ways. Overall, the MVPI is a psychometrically sound assessment tool (Feltham & Loan-Clarke, 2007) with sufficient construct validity (Hogan, & Hogan, 2010). All ten constructs within the scale demonstrates adequate variance at company-level, ICC ranging from .06 – .20 (LeBrenton & Senter, 2008).

Job Performance

Across all validation studies included in the dataset, supervisor ratings of job performance dimensions were mapped onto the job performance model by Campbell (1990) for use as the criterion variable. To facilitate this process, Hogan developed custom Performance Rating Forms (PRFs) in collaboration with each organization, drawing on job analysis results. The PRFs include multiple Likert-scale items measuring job-specific competencies. Approximately 99% of performance ratings in the Hogan Criterion-Related Validation (CRV) studies were completed by managers or supervisors. To ensure consistency, one study (study

#1254), which used a combined peer and manager rating, was excluded. Hogan computes composite scores for each competency and transforms them into z-scores. These standardized competency scores will be used in the analyses.

Campbell's job performance model (Campbell, 1990) includes eight different dimensions – job-specific task proficiency, non-job-specific task proficiency, communication, demonstrating effort, maintaining discipline, facilitating team performance, supervision/leadership, and management/administration. Because the sample consists of employees across job families with some not requiring any leadership responsibilities, facilitating team performance and managerial responsibilities were not accounted for in this study. Accordingly, I identified performance dimensions five from HCM that closely match the first five performance dimensions by Campbell (1990). Table 2 displays the mapping of HCM competencies with Campbell performance dimensions.

I ran the CFA to confirm the factor structure of the overall job performance variable I created using the five competencies from the HCM model – Driving for Results, Team, Communication, Working Hard, and Rule Compliance. Factor loadings of .32 or greater were retained (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013); all items had factor loadings range from .70 to .80 which are considered very good to excellent (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) and hence were retained. Overall, the factor analysis showed an acceptable fit ($CFI = .99$, $RMSEA = .03$, $SRMR = .03$). Hence, these competencies are proposed as the job performance variable in my study. Additionally, the reliability of this scale was .84. Thus, this overall job performance is proposed as the criterion-variable in Study 1. The scale demonstrates adequate variance at company-level ($ICC = .95$).

Demographic Variables

Employee demographics, including gender, age, job family, job title, company, and industry were assessed via self-report.

Analytical Procedures

The first analytical goal of this study is to identify meaningful configurations of value profiles (*RQ1*; *H1a* and *H1b*). Given the nested-data, to address this research question and hypotheses, this study employs non-parametric multilevel LPA (MLPA) using ten MVPI dimensions as indicators. MLPA was selected over its parametric counterpart for several theoretical and empirical reasons. In parametric MLPA, between-cluster differences are represented as continuous variation in individual-level class proportions, typically assuming a normal distribution of higher-level effects (Park & Yu, 2016). Non-parametric MLPA relaxes this distributional assumption by instead modeling cluster heterogeneity through a finite set of latent cluster-level classes, wherein individuals are first assigned to Level-1 latent profiles based on their observed indicators, and clusters are subsequently assigned to Level-2 latent classes based on the distribution of those profiles within them (Finch & French, 2014). This approach is particularly well-suited to the present study, as it yields substantively interpretable classification at both the individual and organizational levels rather than relying on variance decomposition alone. Simulation evidence from Finch and French (2014) further supports this choice, demonstrating that non-parametric MLPA consistently outperforms the parametric alternative in classification quality, as indicated by higher entropy and stronger posterior probabilities. Additional practical advantages include fewer distributional assumptions, reduced computational burden relative to parametric approaches, and greater feasibility with large samples and numerous indicators (Park & Yu, 2016). Best practices as mentioned by Nylund and colleagues

(2007) and Spurk and colleagues (2020) were followed to select the most appropriate model and profile structure at both levels.

The second objective of the research is to examine the validity evidence of the derived single-level LPA value profiles ($RQs\ 2 - 3$; $H2a$, $H2b$). After determining the profile solution, I conducted multinomial logistic regression analyses using R3STEP auxiliary procedure in Mplus (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014), to assess the equivalence of the associations between the predictors (i.e., gender and job family) and the likelihood of profile membership (predictive similarity). I then examined the association between profile membership and the outcome (i.e., job performance) using the BCH method. All analyses were conducted in Mplus 7.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 2011). Lastly, I conducted hierarchical regression analyses in R to examine incremental validity of dummy-coded value profiles over individual values in predicting performance.

Profile Interpretation: Single-Level (Level-1) LPA

LPA was employed in an exploratory fashion to uncover potential profiles of values at work in Mplus 7.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 2011) using the ten dimensions of the MVPI scale as exogeneous variables. In phase 1, single-level LPA was conducted at the employee level, labeled as individual value profiles. The clustering of employees within companies was accounted for in single-level LPA by using the CLUSTER command in Mplus. As suggested by Vermunt and Magidson (2002), the maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR) was used as an estimator. Missing data was addressed using full information maximum likelihood (FIML; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002).

To avoid converging on local maxima, each LPA was estimated using multiple random starting values. The optimal solution for each model was evaluated based on the log-likelihood value, which reflects the model's overall fit—higher log-likelihoods (closer to zero) indicate

better-fitting solutions (Spurk et al., 2020; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). However, because multiple maxima exist within LPA, the recommended approach is to avoid a local solution and to use multiple starting values to find the global solutions (Spurk et al., 2020). Thus, each model was estimated using at least 6,000 random start values, each allowed 100 iterations, and 100 final stage optimization. Specifically, I ensured that the best log-likelihood value was replicated in at least two final-stage solutions. This process helps confirm the robustness of the profile structure and minimizes the risk of selecting a suboptimal model due to local maxima (Spurk et al., 2020). During model enumeration, the number of latent profiles were incrementally increased from one to ten and was then compared to estimate the profile solution for values.

The next step, model selection, was not straightforward (Spurk et al., 2020), and was guided by a combination of fit indices, theoretical interpretability, and parsimony as recommended by Vermunt & Magidson, 2002; Woo et al., 2018; Spurk et al., 2020. Consistent with best practices (Nylund et al., 2007; Spurk et al., 2020), profile solution was identified by (1) comparing models using relative fit information criteria, Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), sample-size adjusted BIC (sBIC); (2) evaluating models with respect to confidence with which individuals have been classified as belonging to one group or another (e.g., entropy), and (3) evaluating the p-value of Lo-Mendell-Rubin Likelihood Ratio Test (p LMRT), that quantify specific comparisons between the model of interest (k -profile) and a model with one fewer classes ($k-1$ profile). While there are no universally accepted cutoffs, lower AIC, BIC, and sBIC values and higher entropy typically indicate better fit. Values of entropy above .80 are acceptable (Spurk et al., 2020). Significant LMRT values ($p < .05$) will further support model adequacy, as it indicates that the target model fits the data better than the one with fewer classes (Spurk et al., 2020). Additionally, in consideration of meaningfulness and

parsimony, a solution was only considered viable if each profile included at least 5% of the total sample.

Finally, model selection prioritized not only statistical fit but also interpretability and theoretical relevance. When differences in fit indices between models were marginal, the more parsimonious solution was favored (Spurk et al., 2020; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). Along with fit indices, I also considered how well an additional profile discriminates from another that has already been retained (Spurk et al., 2020; Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). Research indicates that qualitatively different profiles are considered superior than quantitative profiles in providing new and theoretically interesting information (Spurk et al., 2020; Woo et al., 2024), and that sometimes researchers consider profile discrimination as the most important criterion, overruling statistical fit values. As a result, models were also evaluated for conceptual clarity, with preference given to those offering meaningful and coherent profiles aligned with existing literature (e.g., Magun et al., 2016; Smack et al., 2017; Xie et al., 2023).

Profile Interpretation: Multi-Level (Level-2) LPA

In phase two, the aim was to identify company profiles characterized by distinct proportions of employee profiles within the company. Thus, rather than estimating profiles, like I did, for phase 1, this phase identified company profiles based on the relative frequency of the various categories of L1 latent profiles, once the profile solution for L1 was decided (i.e., $k = 3$; see ‘Results’ for more information on this). Following Vermunt's (2010) manual 3-step procedure, posterior probabilities from the employee-level latent profile solution were saved and used to identify company-level profiles. Specifically, the three posterior probability scores (CPROB1–CPROB3) from the Phase 1 employee-level LPA were aggregated to the company level and used as indicators in a second LPA to identify distinct company-level employee value

profile compositions. This non-parametric multilevel approach allowed company-level profiles to be identified based on their employee composition while preserving the integrity of the employee-level profile solution. Similar to single-level LPA, the number of latent profiles were incrementally increased from one to four and was then compared to estimate the profile solution at company-level (level-2 analysis). To evaluate model fit and guide model selection, I followed similar best practices as those used in the single-level LPA (level – 1 analysis) to identify individual value profiles.

The second objective of the research is to examine the validity evidence of the derived individual value profiles (*RQs 2 – 3; H2a, H2b*). Profile antecedents and profile outcomes sections cover the analytical procedures to examine these research questions and hypotheses.

Profile Antecedents of Individual-Value Profiles

After determining the optimal profile solution at the individual level (i.e., $k = 3$), I conducted multinomial logistic regression analyses using R3STEP auxiliary procedure in Mplus (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014), to assess whether individual differences (e.g., gender) were associated with increased likelihood of belonging to a specific profile, using one latent profile as a reference group. These analyses estimated the probability of an individual being assigned to one profile versus another as a function of predictor variables.

The R3STEP method is specifically designed to incorporate measurement error in profile classification. Rather than assuming individuals belong definitively to one profile (which can introduce classification bias), R3STEP retains the posterior probabilities of profile membership from the LPA and uses them when estimating the relationship between antecedents and class membership. This approach yields more accurate and unbiased estimates of the effects of predictors, on profile membership (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014). Unstandardized beta

coefficients, standard errors, and odd ratios (ORs) are presented from this analysis. ORs with a value greater than one indicate the increased likelihood of membership in a profile (compared with a reference profile) for every unit of increase in the predictor variable. The reverse is true for $ORs < 1.00$. This analysis was repeated to examine how job family (second predictor) influences the likelihood of membership in the profiles.

Profile Outcomes of Individual Value Profiles

A common approach to establish criterion-related validity is to test for differences in means among the profile groups concerning outcomes that are theoretically relevant (Spurk et al., 2020). Specifically, the study investigated how value profiles related to job performance outcome using the manual BCH (Bolck, Croon, and Hagnaars) method, following procedures outlined by Asparouhov and Muthén (2014).

A key advantage of the BCH approach is that it separates the estimation of the latent profile model from the estimation of outcome means, thereby preserving the integrity of the originally identified profile solution (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014). This stands in contrast to other methods, such as the “distal-as-indicator” approach, which can inadvertently alter the number, size, or shape of the selected profile solution when outcomes are added (Schmidt et al., 2021). Furthermore, the BCH procedure allows for the inclusion of covariates, enabling a clearer understanding of the relationship between profile membership and outcome variables while accounting for other influencing factors.

The analytical process involved two major steps. First, the final single-level LPA model was estimated (i.e., $k = 3$), and BCH weights were saved. These weights, calculated based on classification uncertainty, were used in the second step, where profile-specific regressions were conducted on the outcome variables. Analyses were carried out using MLR (maximum

likelihood estimation with robust standard errors), which is recommended when working with weights due to its superior handling of non-normality and improved standard error estimation (Spurk et al., 2020). Within this framework, outcome variable (i.e., job performance) was analyzed using weighted ANOVA, where each participant's weight was inversely proportional to their classification error, thus enhancing the reliability of mean comparisons across profiles. Each employee in a profile was assigned a weight, and the LPA model with the distal outcome was estimated using these weights.

The third objective of the study was to examine the incremental validity of single-level LPA value profiles (i.e., level-1 profile solution) above and beyond individual values (variable-centric approach) in predicting job performance (*RQ4*). The following section explains the analytical procedure to address this research question.

Incremental Validity

After selecting the final profile solution, participants were assigned to their most likely profile class via modal assignment and dummy-coded profiles were created to evaluate the incremental validity of person-centered value profiles over and above variable-centered individual value dimensions. Using base R, a hierarchical regression model was estimated in which the ten MVPI dimensions were entered in Step 1 as predictors of job performance, and dummy-coded profile membership variables were added in Step 2. The change in variance explained (ΔR^2) and corresponding F-test were examined to determine whether profile membership explained unique variance in job performance beyond the individual MVPI scales.

CHAPTER 8: STUDY 1 RESULTS

Individual Value Profiles (Single-Level LPA; Level 1)

Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables are demonstrated in Table 3; demographic breakdown is demonstrated in Table 4. The profile analysis of MVPI values followed two levels of analyses. In Level 1, a single-level LPA was conducted at the employee level and based on the final profile solution of this analysis, a Level 2 multilevel LPA profile solution was subsequently estimated. To identify individual value profiles, single-level LPA was conducted with a one-profile solution as a starting point, incrementally increasing the number of profiles from one to ten. The fit statistics associated with solutions including one to ten profiles are reported in Table 5 and the elbow plot is presented in Figure 1.

As each additional profile was added, the AIC, BIC, and sample-adjusted BIC decreased across solutions, as seen in Table 5. However, as shown in the elbow plot (Figure 1), the rate of improvement in these indices began to flatten after the three-profile solution, with improvements becoming marginal after $k = 4$. The (p LMRT) was statistically significant for the three-profile solution ($p = .01$) and the four-profile solution ($p < .00$), but non-significant for the five-profile solution ($p = .26$), indicating that a five-profile solution did not provide meaningful improvement over four profiles. Entropy remained stable across solutions ranging from .68 to .72, and profile solutions maintained adequate class sizes above the 5% threshold through $k = 6$. Thus, the fit indices indicate either a three-profile or a four-profile solution as an optimal solution. To determine the optimal number of profiles, fit indices were evaluated alongside theoretical interpretability, meaningfulness, and parsimony, as recommended by Vermunt and Magidson (2002), Nylund et al. (2007), and Spurk et al. (2020).

While both solutions demonstrate statistical adequacy, the 3-profile solution better captures the fundamental motivational configurations among employees and avoids conceptual redundancy present in the 4-profile extraction. Two profiles within 4-profile plot exhibit highly similar value configurations. Both profiles are characterized by consistently elevated scores across most MVPI dimensions, particularly on Power, Affiliation, Altruism, and Tradition, and represent a marginal variation rather than a qualitatively distinct motivational orientation. The minimal differentiation between these profiles suggests they reflect the same underlying construct i.e., broadly motivated individuals with multi-value endorsement. This undermines the conceptual value of extracting four profiles. This is consistent with the observation that entropy remained identical across the three- and four-profile solutions (.68 in both cases), indicating that the addition of a fourth profile provided no improvement in classification quality and did not appear to contribute additional meaningful information to the solution. It simply resulted in the arbitrary division of an existing profile into a smaller, moderate-level variant presenting a similar overall shape. In contrast, the 3-profile solution yields one qualitatively and two quantitatively distinct profiles with clear conceptual understanding that represent genuinely different motivational types rather than simply high, medium, and low versions of the same pattern. Therefore, considering the principle of parsimony and conceptual understanding of the profiles on top of the fit indices, three-profile solution appears to be the optimal solution. Table 6 provides the estimated means of the indicators in the three-profile solution. To describe the characterization of each profile, scores are categorized as low, moderate, and high. Low scores are somewhere between 25 to 35; moderate scores are between 35 to 45, and high scores are above 45.

The three identified profiles are depicted in Figure 2 and described below. The first profile, labeled Transactional Achievers (31.08%), is characterized by high scores on Affiliation, Altruism, Commerce, Power, and Tradition, alongside notably low scores on Aesthetics and Hedonism, and moderate scores on Recognition and Science. Distinctive elements of this profile are the higher trend on Commerce and lower trend on Altruism, compared to the other two profiles. This profile represents employees whose achievement orientation is defined narrowly in terms of commercial outcomes and results, pursued through a serious and pleasure-averse style with moderate need for personal recognition and little need for creative engagement, and are less concerned about the welfare of others.

The second profile, labeled Socially Grounded (37.11%), is the largest profile and is characterized by high Altruism, Affiliation, and Tradition alongside notably moderate-low scores on other MVPI values. This profile is mostly quantitatively distinct from the other two as the peaks and valleys of this profile follow similar pattern to other profiles with lower scores for each MVPI, compared to the other two. This profile closely resembles the Social type described in the MVPI technical manual (Hogan & Hogan, 2010), representing employees who are primarily motivated by helping others and maintaining established traditions, with little drive for status, financial achievement, or personal pleasure. These employees are defined by prosocial and conventional values rather than achievement or self-enhancement motives.

The third profile, labeled Expansive Achievers (31.80%), is characterized by the highest scores across the broadest range of MVPI scales, with particularly elevated scores on Power, Affiliation, Altruism, Commerce, and Recognition, and moderately higher scores on Aesthetics and Hedonism relative to the other two profiles. This profile represents employees with a broad and experientially rich achievement orientation, motivated not only by power and commercial

success but also by social connection, recognition, and enjoyment of the work itself. The higher Aesthetics score relative to the other profiles signals openness to creative and experiential dimensions of achievement that distinguish this profile from the more narrowly focused Transactional Achievers.

Taken together, the three profiles were quantitatively and qualitatively distinct, as Expansive Achievers and Socially Grounded were almost quantitatively differed and Transactional Achievers was qualitatively distinct from the two, confirming that they represent different motivational types rather than differing merely in overall level, addressing RQ1.

H1a predicted the emergence of a person-focused profile characterized by high Hedonism, Aesthetics, Science, and Power alongside low Tradition. This profile did not emerge in the data. Aesthetics was low across all three profiles in the organizational sample, and no profile combined high Hedonism with high Aesthetics simultaneously. The Expansive Achievers profile came closest to a person-focused orientation through its relatively higher Hedonism and broader achievement motivation but did not match the hypothesized pattern fully. The absence of a clear person-focused profile may reflect the organizational context of the sample, in which work-related values emphasizing commercial outcomes, power, and social connection may be more salient than self-expressive or pleasure-oriented values.

H1b predicted the emergence of a social-focused profile characterized by high Tradition and low Aesthetics, Science, and Hedonism. The Socially Grounded profile partially aligns with this prediction, displaying low Aesthetics, low Hedonism, and high Tradition. This profile closely resembles the Social type described in the MVPI technical manual (Hogan & Hogan, 2010), representing employees who are primarily motivated by helping others and maintaining established traditions (high Affiliation, Altruism, and Tradition), with little drive for status,

financial achievement, or personal pleasure (mod-low Recognition, Commerce, and Hedonism). Thus, H1b was partially supported.

Company-Level Profiles (Multi-Level LPA; Level 2)

Following the identification of three employee-level value profiles in the Level 1 analysis, a second level of LPA was conducted to identify company-level profiles based on the relative composition of employee profiles within each company (Level-2 analysis). Following Vermunt's (2010) manual 3-step procedure, the three posterior probability scores (CPROB1–CPROB3) from the employee-level solution were aggregated to the company level and used as indicators in a second LPA estimated across 34 companies. Solutions ranging from one to four company-level profiles were evaluated, and the fit statistics are reported in Table 7. The corresponding elbow plot is presented in Figure 3.

As additional company-level profiles were added, the AIC, BIC, and sample-adjusted BIC decreased across solutions. However, examination of the elbow plot (Figure 3) revealed a marked flattening of the BIC slope after the two-profile solution, which showed the least improvement beyond $k = 2$. Although the AIC and sample-adjusted BIC continued to decrease through $k = 4$, this decrease became substantially less pronounced after $k = 2$, consistent with the pattern observed in the elbow plot.

To further support this decision, the conceptual relevance and parsimony of the two-profile solution were evaluated alongside the adjacent three- and four-profile solutions. Though the entropy increased as profiles increased, examination of the $k = 3$ and $k = 4$ solutions revealed critical problems that precluded their consideration as viable solutions. For both solutions, one of the three company profiles contained only two companies ($\sim 2\%$ of the sample), falling well below the minimum threshold of 5% (Nylund et al., 2007; Spurk et al., 2020). Thus, it is

insufficient to support more than two meaningful company-level profiles. Accordingly, the two-profile solution was retained as the final company-level solution, offering two meaningfully distinct and statistically stable company profiles; Table 8 provides the estimated means of the indicators in the two-profile solution.

The two identified company-level profiles are depicted in Figure 4 and described below. Company Profile 1 (64.70% of companies) was characterized by the largest proportion of employees belonging to the Socially Grounded profile (60.30%), followed by roughly equal proportions of Transactional Achievers (19.90%) and Expansive Achievers (19.80%). This company profile represents organizations whose workforce is predominantly composed of employees motivated by prosocial values, helping others, and maintaining traditions, with smaller and roughly equal proportions of both achievement-oriented employee types. Thus, this profile is labeled as Socially Dominant organizations.

Company Profile 2 (35.30% of companies) presented a different employee composition. This profile was characterized by a more evenly distributed workforce, with the largest proportion of employees belonging to the Transactional Achievers profile (37.30%), followed by the Expansive Achievers profile (34.80%), and a smaller proportion of Socially Grounded employees (27.90%). In contrast to Company Profile 1, these organizations were dominated by achievement-oriented employees across both transactional and expansive styles, with notably fewer socially grounded employees. Thus, this profile is labeled as Achievement-Dominant organizations. Taken together, the two company-level profiles reveal meaningful differences in the motivational composition of organizations.

Predictive and Explanatory Validity of Individual Value Profiles

Multinomial logistic regression analyses using the R3STEP auxiliary procedure were conducted to examine gender and job family as predictors of individual value profile membership. Results from the R3STEP procedure indicated that gender significantly predicted profile membership across all pairwise comparisons (all $p < .05$). Unstandardized coefficients, standard errors, and odds ratios for all parameterizations are reported in Table 12. Using Expansive Achievers as a reference group, males were more likely than females to belong to Transactional Achievers profile relative to Expansive Achievers profile ($B = 1.14$, $SE = .25$, $OR = 3.11$, 95% $CI [1.91, 5.09]$, $p < .05$), indicating that males were approximately three times more likely than females to be classified as Transactional Achievers rather than Expansive Achievers. Conversely, males were significantly less likely than females to belong to Socially Grounded group ($B = -0.48$, $SE = .18$, $OR = .62$, 95% $CI [0.44, 0.88]$, $p < .05$), indicating that females were overrepresented in the Socially Grounded profile relative to the Expansive Achievers profile.

Using Transactional Achievers as a reference group, males were less likely than females to belong to the either of the profiles compared to Transactional Achievers group (Socially Grounded profile: $B = -1.62$, $SE = .27$, $OR = .20$, 95% $CI [0.12, 0.34]$, $p < .05$; Expansive Achievers profile: $B = -1.14$, $SE = .25$, $OR = .32$, 95% $CI [0.20, 0.52]$, $p < .05$). Lastly, using Socially Grounded profile as a reference group and compared to females, males were approximately five times more likely to belong to the Transactional Achievers profile ($B = 1.62$, $SE = .27$, $OR = 5.04$, 95% $CI [2.95, 8.63]$, $p < .05$) and were approximately twice more likely to belong to Expansive Achievers profile ($B = .48$, $SE = .18$, $OR = 1.62$, 95% $CI [1.14, 2.30]$, $p < .05$), indicating that Socially Grounded profile was the most female-dominated of all three

profiles. Overall, males were more likely to belong to the Transactional Achievers group and women were more likely to belong to the Socially Grounded group.

Taken together, gender significantly differentiated profile membership, with males overrepresented in the Transactional Achievers profile and females overrepresented in the Socially Grounded profile. H2a states that men are more likely to be in the person-focused group. Although this hypothesis was not directly supported as I did not identify a person-focused group, the literature suggest that men prioritize self-enhancement values such as power and achievement (Rokeach, 1973; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017), which is supported by the findings from this study as Transactional Achievers profile is more oriented towards self-enhancement. H2b predicted women are more likely to be in the social-focused group and this was supported.

Addressing RQ2, results from the R3STEP procedure indicated that job family did not significantly predict individual values profile membership in any pairwise comparison across all three reference class parameterizations (all $p > .05$). Specifically, using Expansive Achievers as the reference class, job family did not significantly predict membership in Transactional Achievers ($OR = .94$, 95% $CI [0.70, 1.27]$, $p = .70$) or in Socially Grounded Profile ($OR = .87$, 95% $CI [0.66, 1.13]$, $p = .29$). This pattern of non-significance was consistent across all reference class parameterizations. Thus, job family is not a significant predictor of profile membership, suggesting that value profiles are not systematically differentiated by occupational role. These results are reported in Table 9.

To examine criterion-related validity of the three value profiles, the BCH procedure was used to test whether job performance differed across individual values profiles, addressing RQ3. Profile-specific means and standard errors for job performance, along with chi-square tests of mean equality, are reported in Table 10. Results indicated that job performance did not

significantly differ across the three individual value profiles. The overall test of mean equality across profiles was non-significant ($\chi^2(2) = 1.80, p = .41$), indicating that the three profiles did not differ meaningfully in their associated levels of job performance. Examination of the profile-specific means revealed that Transactional Achievers reported the highest mean job performance ($M = 0.06, SE = 0.03$), followed by Socially Grounded employees ($M = 0.02, SE = 0.02$), and Expansive Achievers ($M = 0.00, SE = 0.03$). However, none of the pairwise comparisons reached statistical significance, i.e., Transactional Achievers did not differ significantly from Socially Grounded employees ($\chi^2(1) = 0.82, p = 0.37$), nor from Expansive Achievers ($\chi^2(1) = 1.80, p = 0.18$), and Socially Grounded employees did not differ significantly from Expansive Achievers ($\chi^2(1) = 0.44, p = 0.51$). In response to RQ3, individual value profiles did not predict job performance in the present organizational sample.

Incremental Validity of Value Profiles Over Values

A hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine whether latent profile membership provided incremental validity in predicting job performance beyond individual MVPI value dimensions. In Step 1, the ten MVPI values were entered as predictors of performance. This model was statistically significant, $F(10, 4697) = 5.63, p < .05$, explaining a small proportion of variance in performance ($R^2 = .01$, adjusted $R^2 = .01$).

At the level of individual values, several traits emerged as significant predictors. Higher Affiliation ($b = 0.01, p < .05$) and Power ($b = 0.01, p < .05$) were positively associated with performance. In contrast, Aesthetics ($b = -0.00, p < .05$), Commerce ($b = -0.01, p < .05$), Recognition ($b = -0.01, p < .05$), and Science ($b = -0.01, p < .05$) were negatively associated with performance. The remaining values (Altruism, Hedonism, Security, and Tradition) were not statistically significant predictors.

In Step 2, two dummy-coded latent profile variables (Transactional Achievers and Expansive Achievers, with Socially Grounded as the reference group) were added to the model to test incremental validity beyond individual values. The inclusion of profile membership did not significantly improve model fit, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(2, 4695) = 0.08$, $p = .93$. Neither dummy-coded profile significantly predicted performance: Transactional Achievers ($b = -0.02$, $p = .70$) nor Expansive Achievers ($b = -0.01$, $p = .79$) differed significantly from the reference group (Socially Grounded) in task performance after accounting for individual value dimensions. Together, these results indicate that value profiles did not provide incremental predictive validity above and beyond the effects of individual motivational values, addressing RQ4. Results are reported in Table 11.

CHAPTER 9: STUDY 2 METHOD

Participants & Procedure

To address the hypotheses of Study 2, I combined two archival samples collected via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), provided by Hogan Assessment Systems. Hogan regularly collects data from the same MTurk participants across multiple rounds each year. However, the variables assessed differ by round and typically include a mix of personality measures, value assessments, and other constructs of interest to the organization. For the current study, I selected the 2021 and 2022 MTurk datasets, as they both contain all the key variables of interest: MVPI, work engagement, and performance.

Research supports MTurk as a reliable and cost-effective platform for collecting data from a demographically diverse and more representative sample than traditional college-based participant pools (Buchanan & Scofield, 2018). Online data collection also enables access to a broader global workforce, making MTurk samples less WEIRD (Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) compared to typical psychology research samples (Henrich et al., 2010). At the same time, concerns have been raised about inattentive respondents and the presence of bots in online samples. To mitigate these issues, researchers recommend best practices such as attention checks, monitoring click counts and page response times, and using pre-screening questions. Several of these procedures were implemented in the current datasets to ensure data quality (Buchanan & Scofield, 2018).

The 2021 MTurk dataset initially included 950 participants, and the 2022 dataset included 2,000 participants. Eligibility criteria for participation required respondents to be currently employed (either part-time or full-time), at least 18 years old, reside in the United States, speak

English as their primary language, and have a minimum 99% Human Intelligence Task (HIT) approval rate with at least 500 completed HITs. Additional data cleaning procedures were applied to remove participants who entered invalid CAPTCHA codes, averaged less than one second per item, or failed attention checks.

Because Study 1 included only full-time employees, I applied the same criterion to both Mturk samples to allow for valid profile comparisons across studies. After filtering for full-time employment status, the final sample sizes were reduced to 220 participants from the 2021 dataset and 206 from the 2022 dataset, resulting in a combined sample of 426 full-time employees. Sample size of 500 is usually recommended for LPA (Nylund et al., 2007). Though a little short, combining the two samples is a better alternative than analyzing only one sample.

Participants in both datasets completed demographic measures in Round 1, followed by the MVPI assessment in Round 2 (collected typically one month later). Measures of work engagement and task performance were collected in Round 6 for the 2021 dataset (~four months after Round 2) and in Round 7 for the 2022 dataset (~five months after Round 2). Majority of sample participants were men (57.75%), followed by 42.02% women. Participants were on average 39.46 years old ($SD = 9.79$). The ethnicity distribution within the combined sample was as follows: 39.97% White, 38.50% American Indian or Alaskan Native, 7.75% Black or African American, 6.10% Asian, and the rest either did not wish to report or reported two or more races or 'other'.

Measures

Work Values

The MVPI (Hogan & Hogan, 2010) was used to assess employees' core values relevant to workplace behavior, same as in Study 1. Because item-level data were not available, reliability

for the MVPI could not be computed directly; Hogan and Hogan (2010) report the internal consistency of .70 to .84.

Work Engagement

Employees' engagement levels were measured using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Work engagement is defined by the authors as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. The scale includes six items assessing vigor, which capture employees' energy, resilience, and willingness to invest effort; five items measuring dedication, reflecting a sense of significance, enthusiasm, pride, and inspiration; and six items evaluating absorption, which refer to being fully immersed in one's work. In total, the UWES includes 17 items, rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 ("Never") to 7 ("Always/Everyday"). The scale demonstrated excellent internal consistency in the current sample ($\alpha = .94$). An example item is: "Time flies when I'm working."

Task Performance

Task performance, also referred to as in-role performance, is defined as a core job outcome that directly contributes to the organization's goals and is relevant across all types of jobs (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). In the current study, task performance was measured using the nine-item scale developed by Goodman and Svyantek (1999), however, three items (5, 6, and 9) demonstrated low factor validity which ($r = .48$); removing these items improved the model fit in the mediation analysis. Thus, the six-item scale demonstrated strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .93$). Participants were asked to rate the extent to which each statement is characteristic of them using a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 ("Not at all

characteristics”) to 7 (“Totally characteristic”). An example item is: “I fulfill all the requirements of the job.”

Analytical Procedure

The second objective of this research was to evaluate the validity evidence for the value profiles identified in Study 1. While Study 1 employed two strategies to assess validity, Study 2 focuses on testing the replicability of the LPA solution using a different sample. This approach provides an additional check on the robustness of the profile solution (*H3*). The following section explains the analytical procedure to address *H3*.

Replicability of LPA Solution from Study 1

To assess if the same number and size of profiles exist in the validation LPA compared to the original (calibrated) LPA, I re-ran the single-level LPA using the same ten MVPI dimensions as indicators from Study 1, but this time on a new sample of working adults recruited through Mturk. The analysis was conducted in Mplus version 7.1 (Muthén & Muthén, 2011) and used the same analytical procedure as explained in Study 1 for single-level LPA.

Competing profile solutions were evaluated based on model fit and the conceptual interpretability of the resulting profiles. As in Study 1, I used a combination of fit indices, theoretical interpretability, and model parsimony to determine the optimal solution, following best-practice recommendations (Vermunt & Magidson, 2002; Woo et al., 2018; Spurk et al., 2020).

The final objective of this study is to examine the mediating pathway between value profiles and job performance—specifically, how different configurations of individual values influence performance through their impact on work engagement (*H4*, *H5a*, and *H5b*). These hypotheses were tested using a mediation analysis, as outlined below.

Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis offers a rigorous framework for testing whether the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable operates through an intermediate variable (Kazdin, 2007; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). A structural equation modeling (SEM) approach was used to examine whether employee engagement mediates the relationship between value profiles and job performance. This approach allows for simultaneous estimation of direct and indirect effects while accounting for measurement error and the complex structure of the data. Mediation analysis is particularly useful in refining and testing theoretical models by evaluating whether the inclusion of a mediator explains the observed relationship between a predictor and an outcome (Kazdin, 2007).

The SEM-based mediation model was estimated using the lavaan package in R (v0.6-7; Rosseel, 2012), which supports flexible model specification and robust estimation of indirect effects. Conditional probabilities of the final three-profile solution were saved and used to dummy-code the value profiles in R. In this model, value profiles (dummy-coded from latent profile membership) served as the independent variable, engagement was as the mediator, and job performance was the dependent variable.

Prior to testing the mediation effects, the overall model fit was assessed using multiple fit indices in accordance with recommended guidelines by Hu and Bentler (1999). After the model demonstrated adequate fit, I proceeded with the mediation analysis by evaluating both direct and indirect effects. Bootstrapping (e.g., 5,000 samples) was used to estimate 95% confidence intervals around indirect effects, which provides a more accurate assessment of mediation significance than traditional methods (Preacher & Hayes, 2008); these effects were considered statistically significant if the computed 95% confidence interval did not include 0.

This analysis contributes both theoretically and practically by helping to identify not only *whether* values predict performance, but also *how* they do so—offering insights for interventions targeting engagement as a lever for enhancing performance across different value-based profiles.

CHAPTER 10: STUDY 2 RESULTS

Evidence of Replication: Individual Value Profiles (Single-Level LPA)

Descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 2 study variables are presented in Table 12. Consistent with the analytical approach used in Study 1, single-level LPA was conducted with a one-profile solution as a starting point, incrementally increasing the number of profiles from one to seven. The analysis was terminated at $k = 7$ as the $k = 8$ solution failed to produce a replicated global maximum, making those results uninterpretable. The fit statistics associated with solutions including one to seven profiles are reported in Table 13, and the elbow plot is presented in Figure 5.

Entropy values (.79 to .86) were acceptable across all profiles and the smallest profile size was also above the 5% of the total sample threshold, encouraging me to look at other statistics to identify the optimal solution. As each additional profile was added, the AIC, BIC, and sample-adjusted BIC decreased across solutions, however, as illustrated in the elbow plot (Figure 5), the rate of improvement in these indices began to flatten noticeably after the four-profile solution. Furthermore, the p LMRT was statistically significant for the two-profile solution and the three-profile solution ($p < .05$) but was non-significant for the four-profile solution ($p = .18$), indicating that a four-profile solution did not provide meaningful improvement over three profiles. By evaluating the fit statistics, it appeared that either two-profile or three-profile solution might be an optimal solution, thus fit indices were evaluated alongside theoretical interpretability and parsimony to identify the optimal solution. The additional profile in the three-profile solution was qualitatively distinct from the other two profiles, adding more meaning and conceptual understanding to this profile solution compared to

two-profile solution where the two profiles mostly differed quantitatively. Table 14 provides the estimated means of the indicators in the three-profile solution. To describe the characterization of each profile, scores are categorized as low, moderate, and high. Low scores are somewhere between 25 to 35; moderate scores are between 35 to 45, and high scores are above 45.

The three identified profiles are depicted in Figure 6 and described below. The first profile, labeled Security-Focused (31.75%), is characterized by a highly distinctive pattern dominated by a high Security and Tradition, and an upward trend in Science, alongside lowest Affiliation, Aesthetics, and Hedonism of all three profiles, and low Recognition. Moreover, this profile has moderate scores on Altruism, Commerce, and Power, and is qualitatively distinct from the other two profiles. This profile represents individuals who prioritize stability, predictability, and conventional structures in their work environment above all else, with limited motivation for social connection, recognition, or achievement-oriented drives.

The second profile, labeled Broadly Motivated (35.07%), is the largest profile and is characterized by moderate to high scores on all MVPI scales, with relatively highest scores on all MVPI scales, except for Aesthetics, of all three profiles. Aesthetics and Recognition are demonstrated as moderate scores for this profile and the rest are reported as high scores. This profile represents individuals with a broadly engaged motivational orientation spanning social, achievement, and intellectual dimensions simultaneously. The high scores on both prosocial scales (Altruism, Affiliation) and achievement scales (Power, Commerce, Recognition) alongside high Science and Aesthetics suggest employees who are motivated across multiple domains and bring both social sensitivity and competitive drive to their work.

The third profile, labeled Prosocial Thinkers (33.18%), is characterized by lowest scores in Affiliation and Recognition of all profiles, moderate scores in Aesthetics, Power, Commerce,

Hedonism, Security, and Tradition, and high scores in Altruism and Science. This profile is particularly distinguished by its highest score in Aesthetics of all profiles, and by its elevated emphasis on Altruism and Science, as well as its consistently lower emphasis on external validation and social recognition. In contrast to other profiles, which show a decline from Commerce to Hedonism, this profile exhibits an increase across these two scales, indicating a relatively greater emphasis on enjoyment and experiential values compared to material or financial motivations. This pattern represents individuals who are intellectually and aesthetically oriented but show limited drive for social influence, financial achievement, or recognition, suggesting a more reserved and Prosocial Thinkers value configuration. The employees in this group have a desire to help others and relative to other profiles are associated with a desire for pleasure, excitement, and variety. Nonetheless, the moderate score on Hedonism suggest that these employees would usually put business before pleasure.

Taken together, the three profiles are qualitatively distinct and most notably cross at Security, Aesthetics, Power, Hedonism, and Commerce. These profiles demonstrate different motivational configurations rather than scaled versions of the same pattern.

Overlap Analysis of Study 1-Level 1 Profile Solution with Study 2 Profile Solution

Both samples yielded a 3-profile solution and had qualitatively distinct profiles. However, there are several differences between the three-profile solutions identified in Study 1 and Study 2. First, the overall structure of the profiles differs in terms of their dominant value patterns. In Study 1, two of the three profiles (Transactional Achievers and Expansive Achievers) are strongly achievement-oriented, with high scores on Commerce and Power. In contrast, Study 2 includes only one clearly achievement-oriented profile (Broadly Motivated), while the other two profiles (Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers) are less centered on

achievement and more focused on stability or intrinsic interests. Second, the role of Security is more central in Study 2 than in Study 1. The Security-Focused profile in Study 2 is defined primarily by high Security and Tradition, a pattern that does not appear as a dominant or defining feature in any of the Study 1 profiles. In Study 1, Tradition is high in some profiles, but it is combined with achievement values rather than forming a distinct stability-focused pattern. Fourth, the Socially Grounded profile in Study 1 does not have a direct equivalent in Study 2. Although prosocial values such as Altruism are present in Study 2, they are combined with other motivations (e.g., high Science and low Affiliation in the Prosocial Thinkers profile), distinguishing them from Social Type profiles.

Despite these differences, there are also important similarities across the two samples. First, both solutions identify one profile that reflects a broad and elevated pattern across many values. In Study 1, this is the Expansive Achievers profile, and in Study 2, it is the Broadly Motivated profile. In both cases, individuals show relatively high scores across multiple domains, including achievement, social, and, to some extent, experiential values. Second, both samples include a profile that is lower on Recognition and Affiliation compared to other groups. In Study 1, Transactional Achievers show moderate Recognition and relatively lower Altruism compared to other profiles, while in Study 2, both the Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles show low Recognition and lower emphasis on Affiliation. This suggests that a less socially driven pattern appears in both samples, although it takes different forms. Third, in both samples, the profiles are qualitatively distinct rather than simple high, medium, and low versions of the same pattern. In Study 1, Transactional Achievers is qualitatively distinct from the other two profiles and in Study 2, all profiles show crossing patterns across multiple MVPI scales, indicating different configurations of values rather than differences in overall level.

Hypothesis 3 stated that similar value profiles would emerge in Study 2 as identified in Study 1. This hypothesis is partially supported. While both samples yielded three-profile solutions, the specific content of the profiles was not fully consistent across samples. Some general patterns, such as a widely motivated profile (Expansive Achievers and Broadly Motivated) and the presence of less socially driven groups (Transactional Achievers and Prosocial Thinkers), were replicated. However, key profiles from Study 1, such as the Socially Grounded and Transactional Achievers profiles, did not emerge in the same form in Study 2. In addition, Study 2 identified a distinct Security-Focused profile that was not present in Study 1. Overall, the results suggest that while there is some overlap in the general structure of value profiles, the exact profile patterns do not fully replicate across samples.

Mediation Analysis

Once the three-profile solution was found to be the optimal solution, I dummy coded three profiles for the mediation analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis was performed in R to evaluate the measurement model before examining the hypothesized relationships (R Core Team, 2021). The model fit was acceptable, despite the significant chi-square test ($\chi^2(40) = 130.72, p < .001$; $RMSEA = .07$; $CFI = .96$; $TLI = .95$; $SRMR = .04$). Results from the SEM model are presented in Table 15.

Using Broadly Motivated Profile (Profile 2) as a reference group, the results of the main-effects demonstrate that the Security-Focused (Profile 1) and Prosocial Thinkers (Profile 3) significantly differed from the reference group (Security-Focused: $b = -5.02, SE = 0.85, p < .05$; Prosocial Thinkers: $b = -5.25, SE = 0.85, p < .05$) on engagement but not on task performance (Security-Focused: $b = -0.09, SE = 0.05, p = .07$; Prosocial Thinkers: $b = -0.05, SE = 0.05, p = .31$). Results demonstrate that Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles were associated

with significantly lower engagement than Broadly Motivated group. Engagement significantly and positively predicted task performance ($b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.00$, $p < .05$).

Next, the mediating role of engagement in the relationship between value profiles and task performance was assessed. The indirect effect of Security-Focused group (relative to Broadly Motivated group) on task performance via engagement was significant ($b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% $CI [-0.18, -0.07]$). The indirect effects of Prosocial Thinkers group (relative to Broadly Motivated group) on task performance were significant via work engagement ($b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.03$; 95% $CI [-0.19, -0.08]$).

To examine whether Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles differed from each other, the model was re-estimated using Security-Focused as the reference group. Results indicated that Prosocial Thinkers did not significantly differ from Security-Focused in engagement ($b = -0.22$, $SE = 0.92$, $p = .81$) or in task performance directly ($b = 0.04$, $SE = 0.06$, $p = .51$). Consistent with this, the indirect effect of Prosocial Thinkers relative to Security-Focused was not significant ($b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.02$, 95% $CI [-0.05, 0.04]$). In contrast, Broadly Motivated employees showed significantly higher engagement than Security-Focused employees ($b = 5.0$, $SE = 0.87$, $p < .05$), with a significant positive indirect effect on performance ($b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% $CI [0.06, 0.18]$). Together, these findings indicate that Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles differed meaningfully only from the Broadly Motivated profile.

Overall, engagement significantly mediated the relationship between value profile membership and task performance, supporting Hypothesis 4. Both Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles were associated with lower engagement and indirectly lower performance relative to the Broadly Motivated profile but did not significantly differ from each other. This suggests that the critical distinction in motivational engagement lies between the

Broadly Motivated profile and the remaining two profiles, rather than between Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers. Hypothesis 5a stated that work engagement mediates a negative relationship between value profiles high on tradition, security, power, and recognition, and task performance. Hypothesis 5b stated that work engagement mediates a positive relationship between value profiles low on tradition, security, power, and recognition, and task performance. Both these hypotheses were not supported. Compared to the reference group (Broadly Motivated), Security-Focused profile and Prosocial Thinkers had lower scores in tradition, power, and recognition, yet it was negatively associated with task performance.

CHAPTER 11: DISCUSSION

The present research adopted a person-centered approach to examine configurations of work-related values using MVPI across two independent samples. Specifically, LPA was employed to identify distinct value profiles, examine their antecedents and outcomes, and establish incremental validity over individual values in predicting performance. Additionally, Study 1 extended findings to the organizational level through multilevel LPA. The LPA was further employed to examine the replication of the individual values profile structure in a second sample. Across two studies, the findings provide a nuanced perspective on the structure, antecedents, and consequences of work value profiles. Summary of the findings are reported in Table 16.

Consistent with the first objective, the findings demonstrate that employees can be meaningfully classified into distinct value profiles based on their configurations of MVPI values. In both studies, three qualitatively and quantitatively distinct profiles of individual values emerged. These profiles were not merely high, medium, and low variants of the same pattern; rather, they differed in the shape of their value configurations. This aligns with theoretical perspectives suggesting that individuals simultaneously endorse multiple values that interact to shape behavior (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). However, the person-focused profile did not emerge. Instead, in Study 1, two distinct achievement-oriented profiles (i.e., Transactional Achievers and Expansive Achievers) were identified which aligns with the achievement-oriented characteristics of the person-centered profile (high power, commerce, science; e.g., Magun et al., 2016) but does not align with the characteristics of self-expression or pleasure (aesthetics and hedonism). In contrast, partial support was found for the social-focused profile in Study 1, as the Socially Grounded group exhibited high tradition and affiliation, and low hedonism and aesthetics.

Although not explicitly hypothesized, the Socially Grounded profile aligns with the social type labeled in the MVPI technical manual with high Altruism, Affiliation, Tradition, and low Hedonism, and Recognition; moderate level Commerce was the only exception here. Overall, this pattern reflects the organizational context of the sample, where values related to commerce, power, tradition, altruism, science and affiliation are more salient than those emphasizing self-expression or pleasure.

Study 1 results further showed that gender significantly predicted profile membership. Consistent with prior research, males were more likely to belong to achievement-oriented profiles, particularly Transactional Achievers, whereas females were more likely to belong to the Socially Grounded profile. These findings align with established patterns indicating that men tend to prioritize self-enhancement values and women emphasize self-transcendence values (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). In contrast, the lack of association between job family and profile membership suggests that value configurations are relatively stable individual characteristics rather than reflections of occupational role demands.

Moreover, value profiles did not significantly predict job performance, as consistent with prior research suggesting that values may not exert strong direct effects on performance (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006), and it reinforces the notion that values are distal predictors of behavior. Individual values in incremental validity analysis demonstrated small but statistically significant associations with performance; Affiliation and Power emerged as positive predictors, whereas Aesthetics, Commerce, Recognition, and Science were negatively related to performance. However, neither the Transactional Achievers nor Expansive Achievers profiles significantly predicted performance relative to the Socially Grounded reference group, while controlling for individual values. Together, these findings indicate that value profiles did not

provide incremental predictive validity above and beyond individual motivational value dimensions. To some extent, this contributes to the values vs. value congruence debate in variable-centric research, such that despite the methodological and statistical advancements in running complex analysis, it may not add explanatory power for performance over individual values. Additionally, Schwartz (2012) indicates that individuals who endorse self-enhancement values (i.e., MVPI Power and Commerce) are more determined to do better than others, to be in charge, and be influential. These individuals tend to be related to the adoption of performance-approach goals. Interestingly, Power was positively related to performance, but Commerce was negatively related to performance. While Commerce (individual's drive for financial gain) value is often a strength in corporate settings, high scores on Commerce are seen by others as difficult, selfish, and tough (Hogan & Hogan, 2010). If supervisors perceive high-Commerce employees as difficult or self-serving, they may evaluate their performance less favorably, which could explain the negative relationship between Commerce and supervisor-rated performance. Given the alignment between Schwartz' values framework and MVPI values raises conceptual ambiguity, more research is warranted, specific to MVPI values.

Lastly, multilevel LPA analysis in Study 1 also revealed two distinct company profiles: Socially-Dominant and Achievement-Dominant Organizations. Company Profile 1 (Socially Dominant organizations) were characterized by a higher concentration of Socially Grounded employees, while Company Profile 2 (Achievement-Dominant organizations) had higher proportions of Transactional and Expansive Achievers. These findings extend the person-centered perspectives to the organizational level, demonstrating that companies differ not only in individual employee value characteristics but also in their aggregate motivational composition, with some companies attracting and retaining socially oriented employees while others are

characterized by higher concentration of achievement-driven talent. This suggests that organizations may develop distinct value climates based on the profiles of the employees, which may, in turn, influence organizational functioning and effectiveness. Future research should examine whether company-level profiles predict organizational outcomes.

Study 2 further supported the presence of three distinct profiles, although the specific configurations differed. This is consistent with studies that found partial replication support of their initial results; Spurk and colleagues (2020) that 9.5% of studies who attempted to replicate profiles using a different sample found partial support. The differences in profile solutions observed across the two samples may be attributable to both methodological and contextual factors. First, although a single-level LPA was conducted in both studies, Study 1 incorporated the *cluster* command in Mplus to account for nested data, whereas Study 2 used a straightforward single-level LPA analysis. This difference in specification may have influenced the parameter estimates and resulting profile structure. Second, the contextual timing of Study 2 can further explain the differences. Study 2 consisted of MTurk data collected in 2021 and 2022, during the peak and immediate aftermath of the Covid-19 pandemic. This period was characterized by heightened uncertainty, instability, and shifts in work priorities, which may help explain the emergence of more distinct Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles. The prominence of security-related values aligns with increased concerns about stability and predictability during the pandemic, while the presence of intrinsically oriented profile may reflect a reevaluation of personal meaning and fulfillment in work. Though values are relatively stable over time, major life transitions/events can lead to meaningful shifts in value priorities (Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Finally, although ethnicity was not accounted for in the analyses, the racial distribution of Study 2's sample may have influenced the results. Ethnicity could not be

accounted for in Study 1 due to a lack of standardization in coding this variable across the validation studies. Research suggests that race and ethnicity are related to values (Smack et al., 2017), and these differences may, in turn, shape the culture that take hold within an organization. Notably, Study 2's sample showed a substantially higher proportion of American Indian / Alaska Native participants than is typically seen in research samples reflecting U.S. national ethnicity distributions. Given the established link between ethnicity and value orientations, this atypical representation may have meaningfully influenced the value patterns observed in Study 2 and, in turn, may have affected the replication results.

Nonetheless, the results did support partial replication as both studies identified a profile characterized by high scores on almost all MVPI scales (Expansive Achievers and Broadly Motivated). These individuals represent broadly engaged motivational orientation spanning social, achievement, and intellectual dimensions simultaneously. This suggests that a general pattern of high, multifaceted motivation may represent a recurring and meaningful configuration across contexts.

Importantly, Study 2 provides insight into the mechanism linking values to performance. Though direct effects of profiles on performance were not observed, both Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles demonstrated lower engagement compared to Broadly Motivated profile. Furthermore, relative to Broadly Motivated profile, engagement mediated the relationship between profile membership and task performance, such that Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles were indirectly associated with lower performance via reduced engagement. Specifically, employees in the Broadly Motivated profile exhibited significantly higher engagement than both Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers, who did not meaningfully differ from each other in engagement or performance. This suggests that the

critical motivational distinction lies between broadly motivated employees and the remaining two profiles, rather than between Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers specifically. In turn, higher engagement was associated with better task performance. This finding supports prior research that values function as motivational forces that energize and drive engagement which ultimately directs performance (Schwartz, 2012; Deci & Ryan, 2012). The high scores in Broadly Motivated profile on both prosocial scales (Altruism, Affiliation) and achievement scales (Power, Commerce, Recognition) alongside high Science and Aesthetics suggest employees who are motivated across multiple domains and bring both social sensitivity and competitive drive to their work, thereby increasing engagement and performance at work.

Theoretical Implications

The present research advances the theoretical understanding of work values by adopting a person-centered approach to uncover whether distinct configurations of work values exist and how they relate to performance directly and through work engagement. To my knowledge, this is the first study to use LPA with the MVPI scale (a widely applied tool in organizational contexts) using organizational data. This approach directly addresses a limitation in the existing values literature, which has been dominated by variable-centered methods that assume population homogeneity and often overlook the complex ways multiple work values coexist within individuals (Smack et al., 2017). In contrast, person-centered methods such as LPA recognize that individuals differ in their value configurations, enabling the detection of subpopulations that share distinct motivational orientations. This approach captures the nuanced interplay among values, revealing patterns that are often obscured in variable-centric analyses. By identifying quantitatively and qualitatively three-distinct profiles in both studies, the study supports the view that values function as integrated motivational systems, rather than as isolated dimensions, where

employees' motivational priorities co-occur in meaningful patterns (Schwartz, 2012). Rather than examining one value at a time, employees may better be understood by the configuration of values they hold simultaneously.

Second, the findings refine theoretical expectations regarding value profiles. While prior research on Schwartz value profiles emphasized the emergence of person-focused and social-focused profiles (Magun et al., 2016; Schmidt et al., 2021), the current results suggest that in organizational contexts, achievement-oriented configurations may dominate, and person-focused profiles may not emerge in their pure form. This highlights the importance of context-specific measurement and supports the argument that values are expressed differently across domains (de Wet et al., 2019). This is further supported by the partial replication of value profiles in Study 2 where the data was not nested, indicating that organizations may impact the emergence of value profiles. This has implications for generalizability of value typologies and highlights the need for caution when assuming universal profile structures. The partial replication may also point to underlying theoretical reasons. It highlights the context-specificity of value profile structures by demonstrating both similarities and differences across organizational employees and MTurk workers, suggesting that work context itself or other contextual factors (i.e., data collection at the time of Covid-19) shapes which value configurations are most psychologically salient and consequential. This raises the theoretical question of whether major life events (e.g., Covid-19, rise of AI) can influence what people value, and warrants further research, particularly through longitudinal studies.

Moreover, whereas multilevel variable-centered research reveals knowledge about how variables are associated at the organizational-level, the current study identified the types of employee values that predominate within different organizations. This person-centered multilevel

approach contributes a complementary perspective, characterizing organizations by their workforce's motivational composition rather than by mean-level value scores. In doing so, it contributes to understanding how distinct employee value profiles may characterize organizational contexts (i.e., achievement vs. social-dominant types), suggesting that values research should attend to both individual and collective level of analysis when sample size and data structure permit multilevel modeling.

Consequently, examining gender as an antecedent of profile membership advances our theoretical understanding of the role gender plays in shaping value configurations, suggesting that these patterns are robust across different value frameworks and measurement approaches used in LPA. Consistent with prior research on Schwartz-based value profiles, men were more likely to belong to achievement-oriented profiles, whereas women were more likely to belong to social-oriented profiles (Smack et al., 2017; Roccas & Sagiv, 2010; 2017). This may reflect adherence to traditional views that women are better suited for service roles and that key positions in many organizations are more often assigned to men than to women (Li et al., 2008). Nonetheless, the consistent pattern of gender differences in work value profiles warrants further research to better understand the underlying mechanisms driving these relationships. Importantly, despite the identification of meaningful value profiles, the results did not support the incremental validity of profile membership in predicting performance beyond individual value dimensions. This finding has important methodological implications; the use of LPA should be guided by theoretical justification and research objectives rather than assuming that the use of advanced statistical analysis will inherently improve prediction, consistent with authors who found that individual value levels, rather than congruence, may be the more robust predictor of organizational outcomes (Seggewiss et al., 2019).

Finally, drawing on Schwartz' (2012) conceptualization of values as motivational goals, it can be theorized that values may influence performance indirectly by shaping engagement. The results from Study 2 indicated that work engagement significantly mediated the relationship between value profiles and performance when comparing both Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles to the Broadly Motivated reference group, but not when comparing Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers to each other, suggesting that mediated effect is specific to the contrast between broadly and narrowly motivated profiles. The identification of engagement as a mediator along with the absence of direct effect of value profiles on performance provide empirical support for a process-oriented account of how value profiles relate to performance, reinforcing the proposition that values influence behavior indirectly by energizing and directing motivational processes rather than exerting direct effects on performance outcomes.

Theoretically, conservative values (i.e., tradition and security) are related to extrinsic motivation that may undermine engagement and performance (Schwartz et al., 2012; Roccas & Sagiv, 2017). Consistent with this, Security-Focused profile (high scores on tradition and security) reported significantly lower engagement than Broadly Motivated employees, and was associated with lower task performance via the indirect effect. Research also suggests individuals can simultaneously pursue intrinsic and extrinsic values without detrimental effects, particularly when these value systems are balanced (Schreurs et al., 2014). Consistent with this view, findings from Study 2 indicated that individuals in the Broadly Motivated profile, characterized by moderate to high endorsement across MVPI scales, reported higher engagement, which in turn was associated with better task performance.

Practical Implications

From an applied perspective, this research offers important insights for organizational leaders and HR practitioners as they are often interested in knowing whether subgroups exist within their workforce (Ng et al., 2025). Rather than focusing on individual value dimensions, organizations can leverage value profiles to identify distinct motivational groups within their workforce. Understanding that employees cluster into meaningful configurations such as Transactional Achievers, Socially-Grounded, and Expansive Achievers enable HR practitioners and organizational leaders to recognize workforce heterogeneity. The multilevel findings further reveal that organizations differ fundamentally in their aggregate value composition, with some primarily attracting and retaining socially motivated talent while others develop value climate centered on competitive achievement. Understanding both individual and organizational value profiles enable more targeted talent management. Achievement-Dominant organizations, for example, can strategically recruit candidates with achievement-oriented profiles (e.g., Transactional and Expansive Achievers) and retain them by designing work and providing opportunities, such as leadership positions, that align with their underlying values such as high Power. This approach allows organizations to align people with roles, design development programs, and create engagement initiatives that resonate with their specific workforce composition, rather than applying generic, one-size-fits-all practices.

The partial replication of profile structure across two studies underscores an important practical caveat: organizations should not assume value profile structures apply universally across all work contexts. Organizations should conduct their own value profile analyses rather than solely relying on generic benchmarks. Understanding the specific value profiles present in

one's own workforce and how these differ across departments, geographic locations, may provide more actionable insights for targeted interventions.

Moreover, the finding that Broadly Motivated profile demonstrated higher engagement and ultimately higher performance compared to the other two profiles suggests that candidates with more balanced profiles spanning social, achievement, and intellectual value dimensions simultaneously are more valuable to the organizations. Motivational research suggests that a balance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can lead to improved job satisfaction, higher productivity, and enhanced organizational performance (Pandya, 2024; Ryan & Deci, 2023). Likewise, endorsement of multiple MVPI values represent an adaptive configuration that may be beneficial in work contexts. Additionally, a similar profile emerged in Study 1 (Expansive Achievers) suggesting that this broadly motivated configuration is replicable across diverse samples. This replication strengthens the generalizability of the findings and emphasizes the importance of this profile type.

Because value profiles influence performance indirectly through engagement, organizations should focus on targeted intervention strategies that foster engagement across types of value profiles. For example, this may mean providing clear role expectations and stability for Security-Focused employees, emphasizing social impact and relational aspects of work for Prosocial Thinkers group, and offering growth opportunities for Broadly Motivated employees. Additionally, the finding that gender predicts profile membership provides meaningful implications for HR and managers. Organizations committed to retaining diverse talent should ensure retention strategies align with the underlying values of different employees' groups. For example, to attract and retain women, organizations should emphasize team impact, prosocial and relational work.

Finally, given that the profiles emerging from this study using MVPI indicators differed from those found in prior research using Schwartz values, this underscores important differences between the two frameworks and highlights the need for additional person-centered research specifically using MVPI. Because the MVPI is widely used in organizational selection, training, and career development, applying a person-centered lens enhances its diagnostic utility and ability to design targeted interventions that resonate with employees' underlying value configurations. Notably, this aligns with growing calls in the field for greater collaboration between academics and organizations to advance research and bridge science-practice gap (Voss et al., 2025).

Limitations and Future Directions

Despite the contributions of this research, several limitations warrant consideration and guide directions for future research. Though cross-sectional designs are well-suited for person-centered analytical approaches like LPA, in which common-method variance has a limited likelihood of distorting estimates (Valero et al., 2024), future studies should adopt longitudinal designs to better infer causality.

A major limitation in Study 1 involves the performance measure. Because performance metrics differed across companies, scores were z-standardized to enable comparison. However, z-standardization obscures raw performance scores that may offer more meaningful information about actual performance levels. Future research should employ consistent, organization-wide performance measure that can be used in the raw form. The performance measure in the current study was based on Campbell's model of job performance, allowing for cross-industry comparison. However, the relative weighting of performance dimensions may differ across industries, potentially attenuating observed differences among value profiles. Future research

could examine profile–performance relationships within specific industries to identify which value profiles are most predictive in each context. Furthermore, supervisor performance ratings may suffer from unreliability (Salgado & Moscoso, 2019), which could attenuate the relationship between value profiles and performance. Similarly, self-reported engagement and performance in Study 2 may introduce bias, as individuals tend to overestimate their own ability. To address this, future research should incorporate multisource performance data.

Although Study 1 included a large sample, all participants were from the United States. This limits generalizability and cross-cultural insights regarding value profiles. Future studies should expand to multiple countries to examine whether profile structures and their relationships with performance replicate across cultural contexts. Regarding the generalizability of results, although industry-academic collaborations are encouraged in the field, a notable limitation of this research is the proprietary nature of the Hogan measures, which restricts broader access to the data. That said, the findings also underscore the importance of using context-specific instruments that anchor values to the work domain (de Wet et al., 2019). Future researchers should therefore prioritize value measures tailored to the specific context under examination, rather than defaulting to general value frameworks.

Study 1 examined gender and job family as antecedents of value profile membership; however, prior research indicates that race/ethnicity is also related to personal values (Smack et al., 2017). Additionally, personality traits are strongly linked to values and jointly predict several important outcomes (e.g., mental health; Xie et al., 2023). Future research should therefore consider race and personality as additional antecedents of value profiles and predictors of performance. While the current study examined gender and job family as antecedents of value profile membership, future research should consider the role of situational context in moderating

the relationship between value profiles and job performance. Research suggests that the situation may play a meaningful role in the extent to which values relate to performance (Adkins & Naumann, 2001). This is theoretically grounded in Schwartz's (2012) conceptualization of values as guiding principles that shape attitudes and behaviors — what a person considers important will naturally express itself differently depending on the demands and norms of the environment. For instance, an employee who deeply values tradition and security may thrive in a structured, bureaucratic work setting but struggle in a fast-paced, ambiguous start-up environment. Consistent with this reasoning, Ismail and colleagues (2019) found that different values predicted job performance and satisfaction across IT and accounting jobs, responding to the call of person-job fit theory, which argues that each job carries its own characteristics that may be more compatible with certain value orientations than others. Taken together, these findings suggest that situational context, whether defined by job category, industry, or organizational structure, may serve as an important boundary condition for the value profile and performance relationship, and future research should explicitly examine this moderating role. Though situational context was considered in the current study, the timing of data collection (i.e., during Covid-19 for study 2), could have played a key role in influencing replication results. Similarly, in an era where AI is booming and substantially reshaping job and organizational structures, it is possible that different value patterns will emerge, naturally shaped by how AI is changing the way employees work, what employees and organizations value, and growing concerns around job insecurity. This underscores the need for continued research in this area.

Although LPA offers numerous advantages, it is sensitive to model specification, particularly in determining the number of profiles to extract, a decision that can be subjective and affect interpretation (Nylund et al., 2007). This limitation is especially relevant here, as prior

LPA research on values has primarily used Schwartz's value measures, whereas this study employed the MVPI as a value measure, complicating direct comparison. While I attempted to mitigate this issue by validating the profile solution from Study 1 in Study 2, the Study 2 sample size falls below recommended thresholds (Nylund et al., 2007) and Study 1 was nested while Study 2 wasn't, which may have influenced the replication results. Future research should therefore conduct additional LPA studies using MVPI dimensions as indicators with samples reflecting similar demographic distributions.

Finally, as this research was exploratory, recent developments in confirmatory LPA allow more rigorous testing of assumptions underlying profile solutions, and applying such approaches in future research would enhance confidence in the validity and interpretability of LPA-derived profiles (Spurk et al., 2020). The current study lays the foundation to explore future research directions as mentioned here.

CONCLUSION

Work values are distinct yet interdependent constructs whose configurations cannot be fully understood through variable-centered approaches that examine values in isolation. Across two studies, this dissertation advances values research by adopting a person-centered framework that captures the complex interplay among values within individuals. Study 1 identified three qualitatively and quantitatively distinct individual value profiles and extended this analysis to the organizational level, revealing two company profiles that differ fundamentally in their aggregate value composition. Validity evidence for these profiles was established through examination of antecedents (gender and job family) and outcomes (performance). Study 2 provided partial replication support, identifying three profiles with one substantially similar configuration, while the other two profiles differed meaningfully across the two samples. These findings underscore the context-specificity of value profile structures and highlight important implications for the generalizability of value typologies across occupational and cultural contexts. Critically, Study 2 demonstrated that value profiles influence performance indirectly through work engagement. Given that the MVPI is a widely used assessment tool in organizational selection, training, and career development, this research underscores the importance of conducting person-centered research specifically using MVPI indicators, rather than generalizing findings from studies employing Schwartz's values framework. Collectively, the research offers actionable insights for organizations to enhance performance, engagement, and talent management by recognizing distinct employee value profiles and understanding their demographic and contextual antecedents.

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APPENDIX: TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1

Alignment between Schwartz' Values Framework (Schwartz, 1992) and MVPI Values, including the MVPI Scale Value Definitions (Hogan & Hogan, 2010)

Schwartz Scales	MVPI Scales	Correlation
Self-Direction	Aesthetics <i>Interested in arts, literature, humanities. Enjoys the pleasure of the arts.</i>	.53*
Stimulation	Affiliation <i>Enjoying and seeking out social interaction.</i>	.41*
Universalism	Altruism <i>Wanting to help others and contribute to society.</i>	.68*
Power	Commerce <i>Interest in money, profits, investment, and business opportunities.</i>	.74*
Hedonism/Stimulation	Hedonism <i>Oriented for fun, pleasure, and enjoyment.</i>	.58*
Achievement	Power <i>Desiring success, accomplishment, status, and control.</i>	.64*
Power	Recognition <i>Responsiveness to attention, approval, praise, and a need to be recognized.</i>	.45*
Self-Direction	Science <i>Wanting knowledge, research, technology, and data.</i>	.52*
Security	Security <i>Desire for certainty, predictability, order, and control in one's life.</i>	.47*
Tradition	Tradition <i>Dedication to ritual, history, and old-fashioned virtues.</i>	.66*

Note: $N = 251$. * Indicates $p < .05$. These correlations were derived from an internal study conducted at Hogan and were adopted from Tecle (2020).

Table 2

Alignment of Hogan Competency Model (HCM) dimensions with Campbell's (1990) Job Performance Model – Formulation of Job Performance Variable in Study 1

Campbell (1990) Job Performance Dimension	HCM Dimension
<u>Job-Specific Task Proficiency (JSTP)</u> <i>Activities unique to a specific role</i>	<u>Driving for Results</u> <i>Accomplishes goals, completes tasks, and achieve results</i>
<u>Non-Job Specific Task Proficiency (NJSTP)</u> <i>General tasks common across roles</i>	<u>Teamwork</u> <i>Collaborates with others to achieve goals</i>
<u>Written and Oral Communication</u> <i>Expressing ideas or transmitting information to others</i>	<u>Communication</u> <i>Communicates effectively with others</i>
<u>Demonstrating Effort</u> <i>Persistence and intensity of work behaviors</i>	<u>Working Hard</u> <i>Consistently strives to complete tasks and assignments at work</i>
<u>Maintaining Personal Discipline</u> <i>Adherence to Organizational Norms</i>	<u>Rule Compliance</u> <i>Adheres to directions, policies, and/or legal guidelines</i>

Table 3*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables – Study 1*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	40.46	10.13											
2. Aes	33.80	7.69	.01										
3. Aff	49.06	5.78	-.13**	.12**									
4. Alt	50.09	6.26	.01	.31**	.26**								
5. Com	45.88	6.28	-.08**	.02	.21**	.03							
6. Hed	40.34	7.10	-.36**	.25**	.30**	.09**	.11**						
7. Pow	48.22	6.49	-.17**	.11**	.36**	.12**	.54**	.31**					
8. Rec	40.45	8.23	-.22**	.21**	.34**	.07**	.36**	.41**	.52**				
9. Sci	41.14	8.32	-.10**	.27**	.01	.22**	.16**	.11**	.24**	.14**			
10. Sec	42.27	6.91	-.00	-.09**	-.21**	.14**	.10**	-.02	-.02	-.03*	.05**		
11. Tra	46.52	6.11	.11**	-.06**	-.03	.22**	.21**	-.18**	.13**	.01	-.00	.37**	
12. Perf	0.03	0.87	-.06**	-.05**	.04**	-.00	-.02	-.01	.03	-.03	-.06**	-.01	.02

Note: $N = 4,710$. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. Aes = aesthetics; Aff = affiliation; Alt = altruism; Com = commerce; Hed = hedonism; Pow = power; Sci = science; Sec = security; Tra = tradition; Perf = performance

Table 4*Study 1 Demographic Breakdown*

	Mean (SD)
Age	40.46 (10.13)
	n (%)
Gender	
Man	2447 (60.52%)
Woman	1427 (29.26%)
Did Not Answer	836 (10.22%)
Job Family	
Managers and Executives	2080 (37.79%)
Sales and Customer Support	1170 (18.50%)
Professionals	1112 (11.52%)
Service and Support	246 (11.93%)
Administrative and Clerical	36 (5.16%)
Technicians and Specialists	66 (6.62%)

Note: $N = 4,710$. A total of 34 companies with an average of 130 employees per company

Table 5*Model Fit Indices for Individual Values (Level 1) LPA Models – Study 1*

c	LL	fp	AIC	BIC	sBIC	LMRT (<i>p</i>)	Entropy	Smallest Profile Size
1	-157551.35	20	315142.71	315271.86	315208.30	-	-	
2	-155119.53	41	310321.06	310585.82	310455.53	-	.72	2167
3	-154497.20	62	309118.40	309518.76	309321.75	.01*	.68	1464
4	-153968.48	83	308102.96	308638.93	308375.19	.00*	.68	915
5	-153520.90	104	307249.81	307921.38	307590.91	.26	.69	615
6	-153232.40	125	306714.80	307521.98	307124.78	-	.69	377
7	-152955.12	146	306202.25	307145.03	306681.10	-	.70	363
8	-152755.29	168	305844.58	306922.97	306392.31	-	.71	264
9	-152594.04	188	305564.08	306778.08	306180.68	-	.71	238
10	-152432.68	209	305259.97	306609.57	305945.45	-	.72	25

Note: $N = 4,710$. LPA = latent profile analysis; LL = loglikelihood; fp = free parameters; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC; LMRT (*p*) = Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio test p-value. * $p < .05$

Table 6

Estimated Means of the Indicators in the 3-Profile Individual Value (Level – 1) LPA Model – Study 1

MVPI Scale	Transactional Achievers	Socially-Grounded	Expansive Achievers
Aesthetics	30.08	32.59	38.76
Affiliation	49.21	46.03	52.49
Altruism	48.18	48.94	53.26
Commerce	49.57	41.16	47.91
Hedonism	39.30	37.47	44.72
Power	51.06	42.51	52.24
Recognition	41.48	34.64	46.30
Science	40.53	38.94	44.31
Security	42.95	42.27	41.62
Tradition	48.02	45.41	46.40

Note: N = 4,710.

Table 7*Model Fit Indices for Company Profiles (Level 2) LPA Models – Study 1*

Model	LL	Free parameters	AIC	BIC	sBIC	Entropy
1	43.35	6	-74.71	-65.55	-84.27	-
2	64.54	13	-103.09	-83.25	-123.82	.91
3	79.56	20	-119.12	-88.59	-151.01	.97
4	93.72	27	-133.45	-92.24	-176.50	.98

Note: $N = 34$. LPA = latent profile analysis; LL = loglikelihood; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC.

Table 8

Estimated Means of the Indicators in the 2-Profile Company-Profile (Level – 2) LPA Model – Study 1

Employee-Level Profile	Socially-Dominant Organizations	Achievement-Dominant Organizations
Transactional Achievers	0.20	0.37
Socially-Grounded	0.60	0.28
Expansive Achievers	0.20	0.35

Note: N = 34.

Table 9*Distribution of Demographic Characteristics by Class – Study 1*

	b	SE	OR	b	SE	OR
	Expansive Achievers vs. Transactional Achievers			Expansive Achievers vs. Socially-Grounded		
Gender	1.14*	0.25	3.11	-0.48*	0.18	0.62
Job Family	-0.06	0.16	0.94	-0.14	0.14	0.87
	Transactional Achievers vs. Socially-Grounded			Transactional Achievers vs. Expansive Achievers		
Gender	-1.62*	0.27	0.20	-1.14*	0.25	0.32
Job Family	-0.08	0.18	0.92	0.06	0.16	1.06
	Socially-Grounded vs. Transactional Achievers			Socially-Grounded vs. Expansive Achievers		
Gender	1.62*	0.27	5.04	0.48*	0.18	1.62
Job Family	0.08	0.18	1.09	0.14	0.14	1.15

Note: $N = 4,170$. $*p < .05$; b = multinomial logistic regression coefficient; SE = standard error of the coefficient; OR = odds ratio. For gender, females were coded 1, and males were coded 2. The estimate and OR represent the influence of the predictor on the likelihood of profile membership into the second profile relative to the first profile (the reference group). ORs in bold are statistically significant.

Table 10*Mean Comparisons across Latent Class on Performance*

	Class 1 (n = 1464; 31%) M (SE)	Class 2 (n = 1748; 37%) M (SE)	Class 3 (n = 1498; 32%) M (SE)	Comparison	χ^2	<i>p</i>
Job Performance	0.03 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.02 (0.03)	Overall	1.80	.41
				Class 1 vs. 2	0.82	.36
				Class 1 vs. 3	1.80	.18
				Class 2 vs. 3	0.44	.51

Note: $N = 4,170$. Class 1 = Transactional Achievers; Class 2 = Socially-Grounded; Class 3 = Expansive Achievers. Values represent BCH-adjusted latent class means (standard errors in parentheses). χ^2 = chi-square test of equality of means across classes. All pairwise comparisons were non-significant ($p > .05$), indicating no significant differences in job performance across latent profiles.

Table 11

Hierarchical Regressions of Individual Values and Dummy-Coded Individual Value Profiles Predicting Job Performance

Model	β	SE B	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1			.01	.01	.01*	5.63*
Aesthetics	-0.00*	0.00				
Affiliation	0.01*	0.00				
Altruism	0.00	0.00				
Commerce	-0.01*	0.00				
Hedonism	-0.00	0.00				
Power	0.01*	0.00				
Recognition	-0.01*	0.00				
Science	-0.01*	0.00				
Security	-0.00	0.00				
Tradition	0.00	0.00				
Step 2			.01	.01	.00	4.70*
Aesthetics	-0.00*	.54				
Affiliation	0.01*	.57				
Altruism	0.00	.16				
Commerce	-0.01*					
Hedonism	-0.00					
Power	0.01*					
Recognition	-0.01*					
Science	-0.01*					
Security	-0.00					
Tradition	0.00					
D_Trans	-0.02					
D_Expan	-0.01					

Note: $N = 4,710$. I used Socially Grounded Profile as the reference group to create the two dummy profiles: D_Trans is Transactional Achievers vs. reference group; D_Expan is Expansive Achievers vs. reference group. * $p < .05$

Table 12*Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Study Variables – Study 2*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	39.46	9.79												
2. Aes	40.51	10.22	.02											
3. Aff	40.91	9.47	.11*	.16**										
4. Alt	49.53	9.36	.04	.32**	.52**									
5. Com	44.82	7.60	.00	-.13**	.20**	-.01								
6. Hed	43.01	7.85	-.15**	.18**	.38**	.17**	.17**							
7. Pow	43.17	9.22	.02	-.03	.41**	.08	.69**	.28**						
8. Rec	37.19	9.26	-.10*	.09	.40**	.10*	.47**	.43**	.61**					
9. Sci	47.80	7.92	.01	.15**	.15**	.15**	.21**	-.01	.21**	.14**				
10. Sec	49.00	7.44	.04	-.19**	-.24**	.03	.14**	-.20**	-.06	-.08	-.00			
11. Tra	45.30	7.52	.22**	-.09	-.06	.08	.27**	-.17**	.20**	.06	-.13*	.50**		
12. Eng	79.05	22.36	.22**	.11*	.40**	.29**	.22**	-.05	.41**	.19**	.13**	-.08	.11*	
13. TP	56.54	6.11	.10*	.12*	.23**	.23**	.14**	-.00	.30**	.15**	.11*	-.04	.11*	.43**

Note: $N = 426$. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. Aes = aesthetics; Aff = affiliation; Alt = altruism; Com = commerce; Hed = hedonism; Pow = power; Sci = science; Sec = security; Tra = tradition; Eng = engagement; TP = task performance.

Table 13*Model Fit Indices for Individual Value LPA Models – Study 2*

Model	LL	fp	AIC	BIC	sBIC	LMR T (<i>p</i>)	Entropy	Smallest Profile Size
1	-15029.24	20	30098.48	30179.38	30115.91	-	-	
2	-14744.28	41	29570.55	29736.40	29606.29	.02*	.82	164
3	-14610.95	62	29345.90	29596.69	29399.94	.01*	.79	143
4	-14514.65	83	29195.31	29531.04	29267.66	.18	.82	84
5	14416.37	104	29040.74	29461.42	29131.40	.16	.85	50
6	-14354.72	125	28959.45	29465.07	29068.41	.50	.86	40
7	-14299.51	146	28891.02	29481.59	29018.28	.28	.86	39

Note: *N* = 422. LPA = latent profile analysis; LL = loglikelihood; fb = free parameters; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC; LMRT (*p*) = Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio test *p*-value.

Table 14*Estimated Means of the Indicators in the 3-Profile Individual Values LPA Model – Study 2*

MVPI Scale	Security-Focused	Broadly Motivated	Prosocial Thinkers
Aesthetics	35.78	41.87	43.51
Affiliation	34.00	48.04	39.95
Altruism	45.11	52.90	50.17
Commerce	44.86	50.15	39.23
Hedonism	38.13	47.79	42.58
Power	41.04	51.23	36.77
Recognition	32.93	45.22	32.81
Science	45.71	49.87	47.58
Security	54.31	47.96	45.12
Tradition	49.48	45.96	40.70

Note: N = 422.

Table 15

Mediation Analyses Examining Work Engagement as a Mediator Between Dummy-Coded Individual Value Profiles-Performance Relationship

Mediator = Engagement			DV = Performance	
Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>
Reference Group: <i>Broadly Motivated</i>				
D_Sec	-5.02*	0.85	-0.09	0.05
D_Pro	-5.25*	0.85	-0.05	0.05
Reference Group: <i>Security-Focused</i>				
D_BM	5.02*	0.87	0.09	0.05
D_Pro	-0.22	0.92	0.04	0.06
Indirect and Total Effects			<i>B</i>	95% CI
Reference Group: <i>Broadly Motivated</i>				
D_Sec → Engagement → Performance			-0.12*	[-0.18, -0.07]
D_Pro → Engagement → Performance			-0.12*	[-0.19, -0.08]
Reference Group: <i>Security-Focused</i>				
D_BM → Engagement → Performance			0.12*	[0.07, 0.18]
D_Pro → Engagement → Performance			-0.00	[-0.05, 0.04]

Note: *N* = 418 (4 outliers removed). Reference groups are indicated in italics. D_Sec = Security-Focused; D_Pro = Prosocial Thinkers; D_BM = Broadly Motivated. **p* < .05

Table 16*Summary of Hypotheses and Study Findings*

Research Question (RQ) / Hypotheses (H)	Support	Reasoning
RQ1: Are there qualitatively and quantitatively distinct profiles of individuals' values?	-	Two quantitatively (Expansive Achievers and Socially Grounded) and one qualitatively (Transactional Achievers) distinct individual values profiles emerged.
H1a: A profile will emerge in a single-level LPA of individual values that is person-focused class, characterized by those who place greater importance on MVPI values relating to hedonism, aesthetics, science, and power, and less emphasis on tradition.	No	While Transactional Achievers and Expansive Achievers were characterized with high Science and Power, it was also characterized with high Tradition and low Hedonism and Aesthetics, unlike as expected in the person-focused profile.
H1b: A profile will emerge in a single-level LPA of individual values that is social-focused class, characterized by those who place a higher emphasis on MVPI values relating to tradition and less emphasis on aesthetics, science, and hedonism.	Yes, partially	Socially Grounded profile is the closest match to social-focused class as it is characterized with high Tradition and Low Aesthetics and Hedonism. The only exception is the moderate Science in the Socially Grounded profile.
H2a: Men will demonstrate a higher probability of membership in the person-focused individual value profile.	No	Because I did not identify a person-focused profile, this hypothesis was not supported, however, it is important to note that the finding was consistent with the prior literature as men were more likely to belong to the Transactional Achievers profile which is more oriented to self-enhancement and achievement.
H2b: Women will demonstrate a higher probability of membership in the social-focused individual value profile.	Yes	Results showed that women were more likely to belong to the Socially Grounded group.
RQ2: How does job family predict individual value profile membership?	-	Job family does not predict individual value profile membership as employees across all seven job families were equally distributed across the three individual value profiles.
RQ3: How does the job performance differ across individual value profiles?	-	Individual value profiles did not predict job performance.
RQ4: Do individual value profiles (person-centric approach) explain additional variance in employee performance above and beyond the predictive power of individual values (variable-centric approach)?	-	Value profiles did not provide incremental predictive validity above and beyond the effects of individual motivational values.

H3: Similar individual value profiles will emerge in Study 2 as identified in Study 1.	Yes, partially	Like Study 1, Study 2 identified three profiles but all of them were qualitatively distinct. Broadly Motivated Profile (Study 2) was similar to the Expansive Achievers Profile (Study 1) but the other two profiles from Study 2 were different from the profiles in Study 1.
H4: Work engagement mediates the relationship between individual value profiles and task performance.	Yes	Engagement mediated the relationship between profile membership and task performance, such that Security-Focused and Prosocial Thinkers profiles were indirectly associated with lower performance via reduced engagement.
H5a: Work engagement will mediate the negative relationship between all the individual value profiles high on tradition, security, power, and recognition and task performance.	No	Compared to the reference group (Broadly Motivated; Profile 2), both Security-Focused profile (Profile 1) and Prosocial Thinkers profile (Profile 2) had lower scores in tradition, power, and recognition. However, work engagement significantly and negatively mediated the relationship between these profiles and task performance, relative to Broadly Motivated profile.
H5b: Work engagement will mediate the positive relationship between all the individual value profiles low on tradition, security, power, and recognition and task performance.	No	

Note: ‘-’ indicates that a support is not applicable for Research Questions.

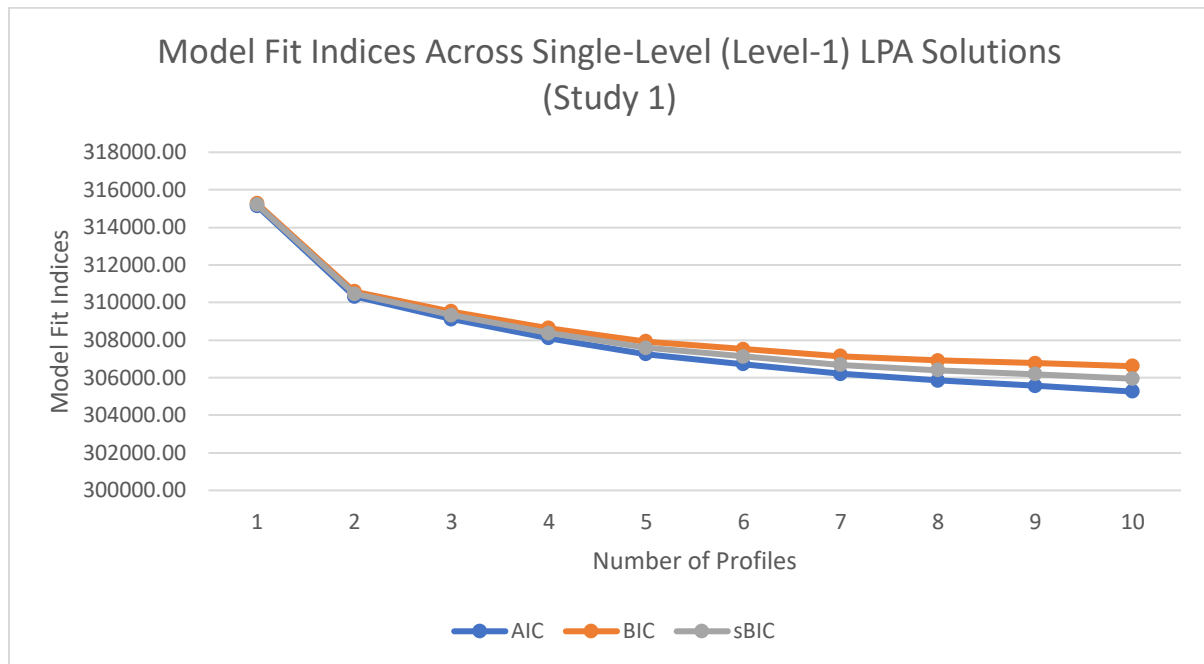


Figure 1. *Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Employee Value Profiles (Level 1) – Study 1. LPA = latent profile analysis; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC.*

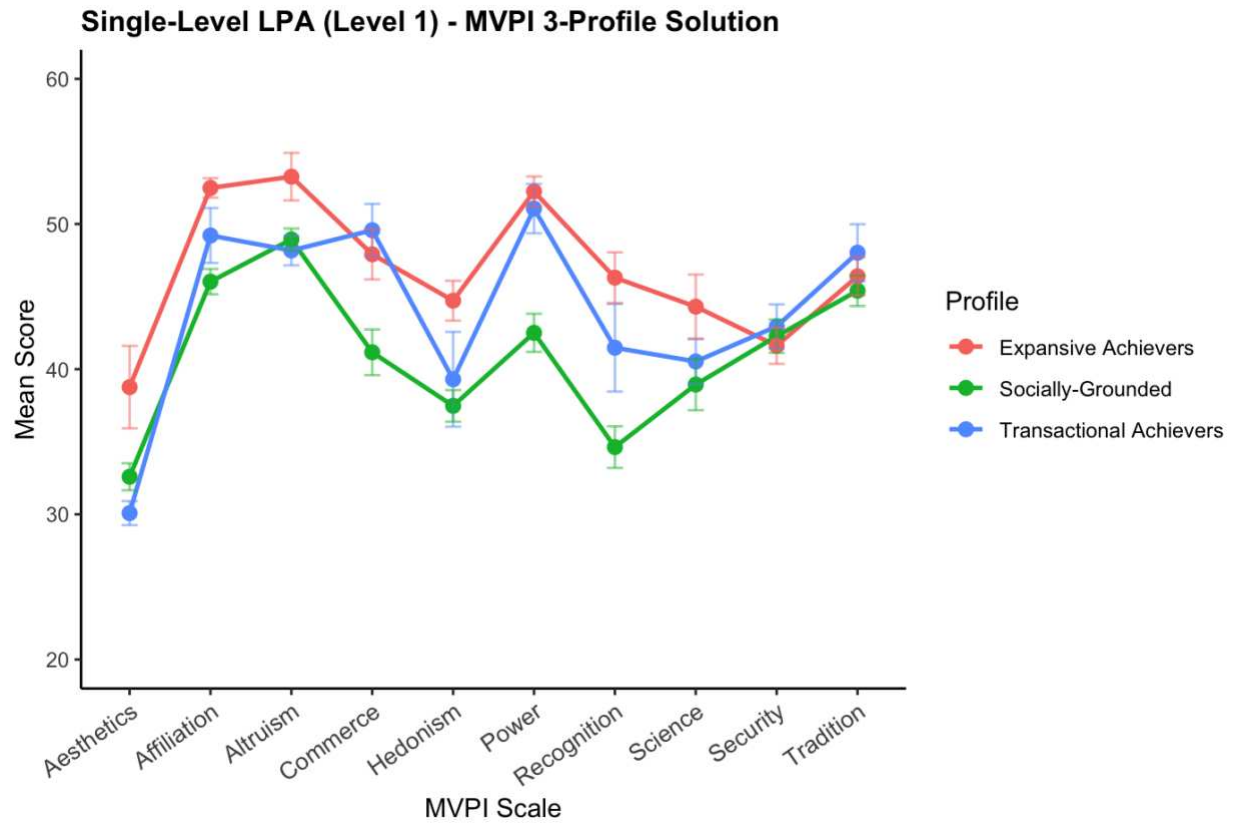


Figure 2. *Estimated Means of Employee Values across a 3-Profile Solution – Study 1*

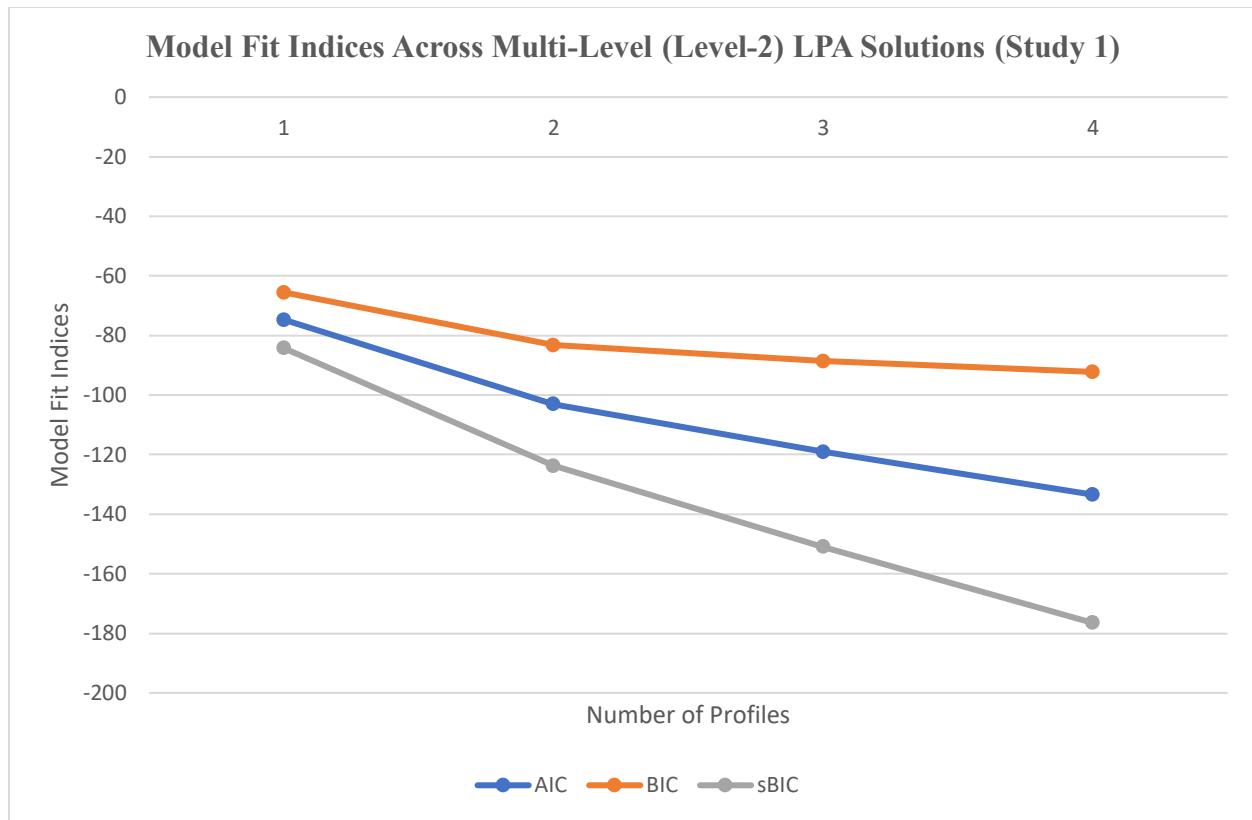


Figure 3. *Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Company Profiles (Level 2) – Study 1. LPA = latent profile analysis; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC.*

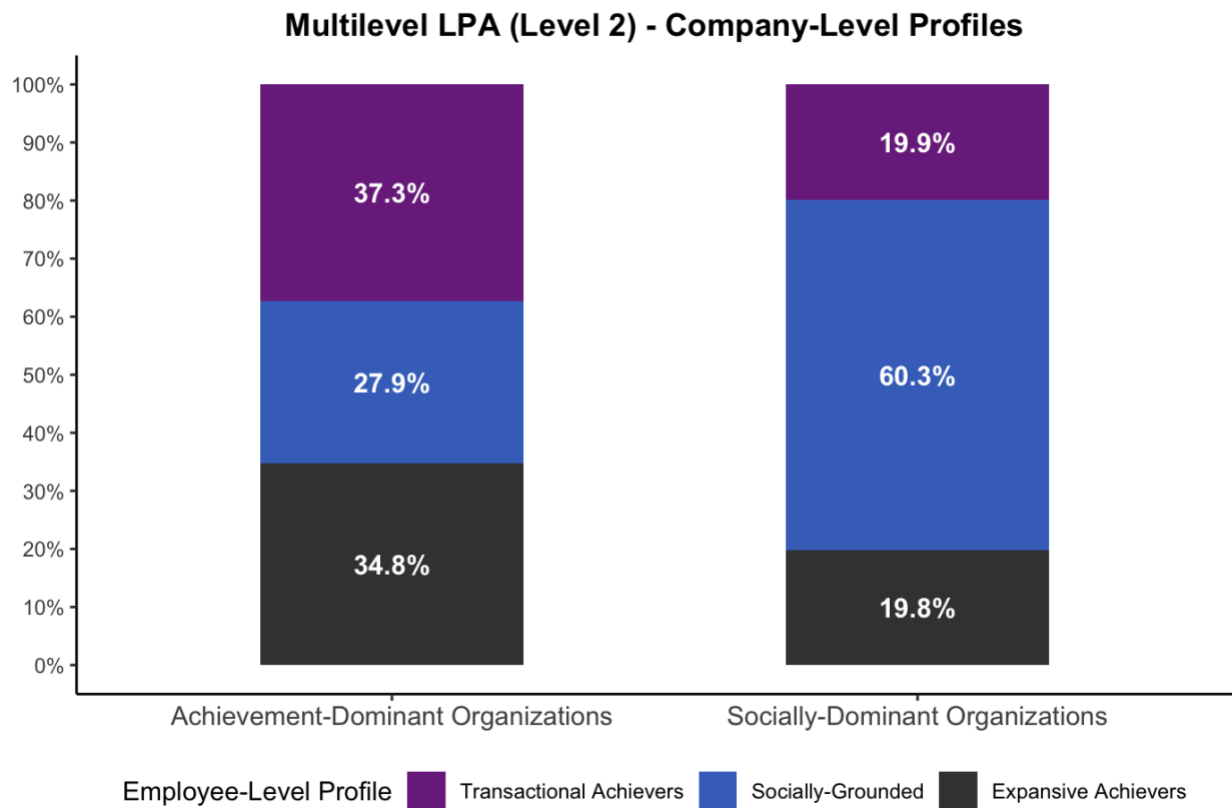


Figure 4. *Estimated Means of Company-Level Profiles Based on the Relative Composition of Employee Profiles within Each Company across a 2-Profile Solution – Study 1*

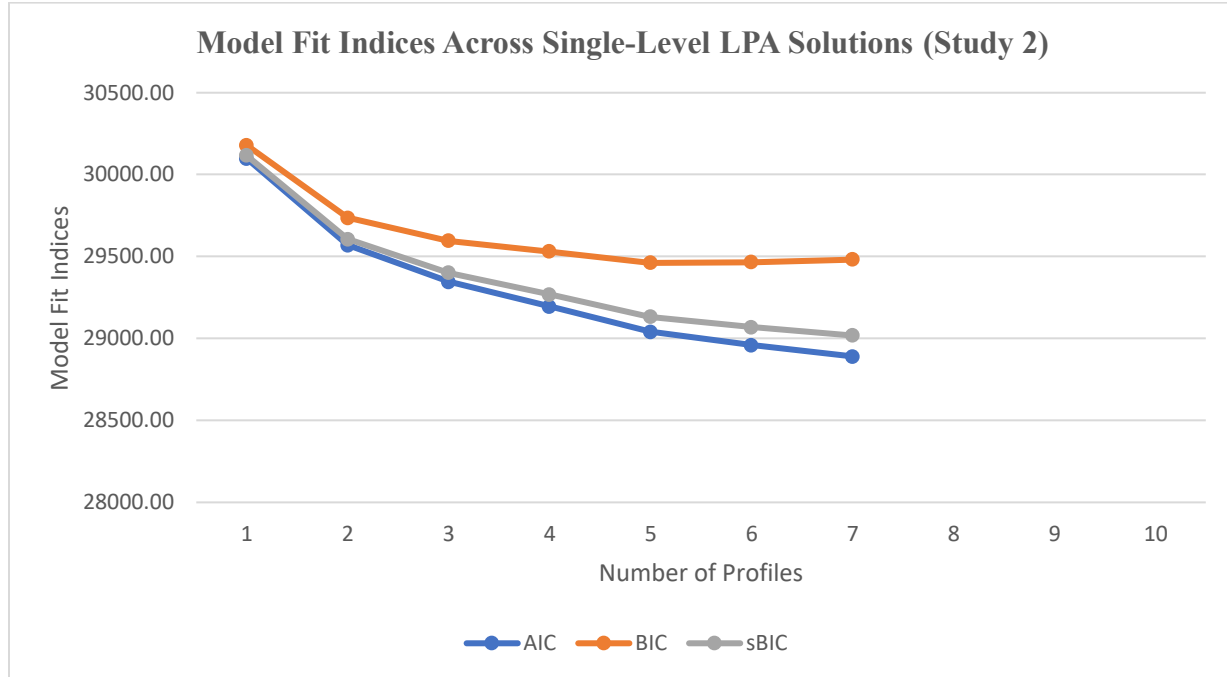


Figure 5. *Elbow Plot of AIC, BIC, and sBIC for Employee Value Profiles – Study 2. LPA = latent profile analysis; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion, sBIC = sample-size adjusted BIC.*

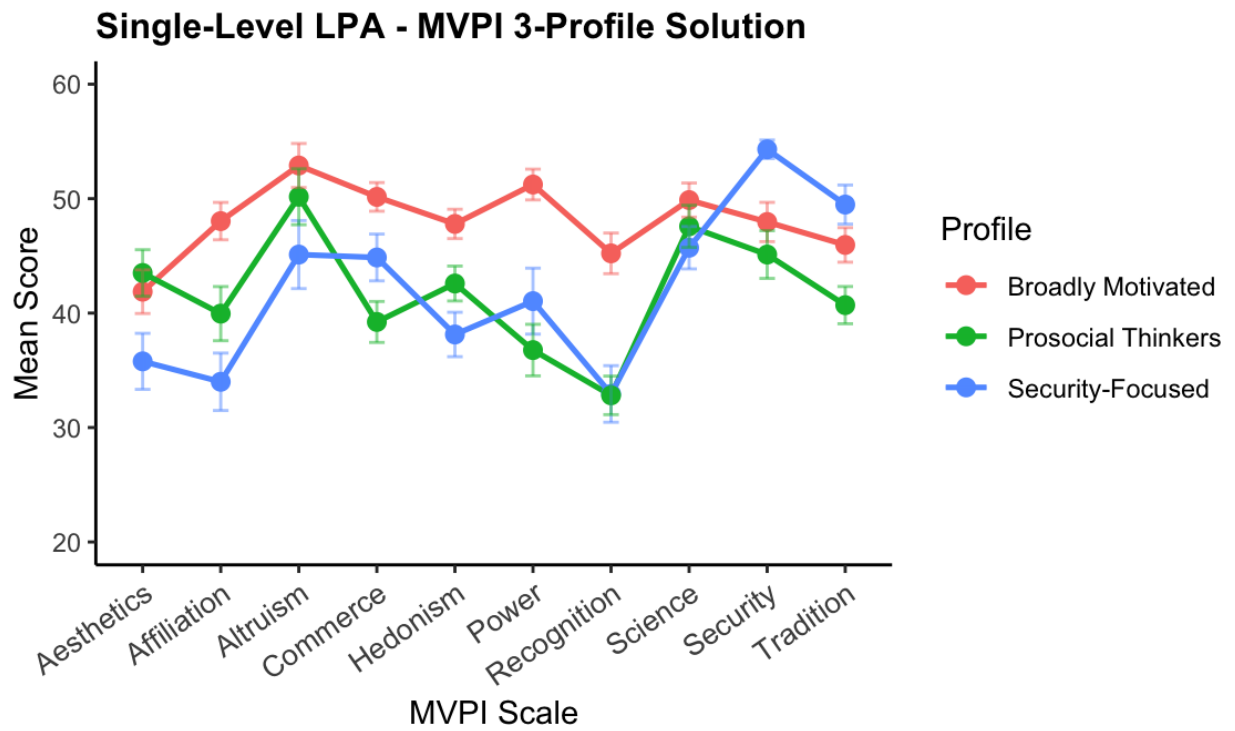


Figure 6. *Estimated Means of Employee Values across a 3-Profile Solution – Study 2*