JOB ENTRENCHED, PLACEHOLDERS, OR JOB DETACHED: A PERSON-CENTERED APPROACH TO JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

by

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ABSTRACT

GEOFFREY B. NAU. JOB ENTRECHED, PLACEHOLDERS, OR JOB DETACHED: A PERSON-CENTERED APPROACH TO JOB EMBEDDEDNESS.
(Under the direction of DR. DAVID WOEHR).

With the introduction of job embeddedness theory, research focus shifted away from the precursors of why people leave and turned attention toward why people stay. Distinct from similar constructs, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, job embeddedness includes community-related issues in addition to job-related issues. While existing literature has evaluated alternate ways to measure the job embeddedness construct, variable-centered approaches continue to be utilized. This approach implicitly assumes that being high or low on job embeddedness perceptions in the form of an overall composite indicates that individuals perceive each aspect and their attachment ties similarly. Thus, this study advances the job embeddedness theoretical framework by engaging in a person-centered approach. By conducting a confirmatory factor analysis, this study found that the relationship between variables and presumed underlying factors used to measure job embeddedness was best represented by a six-factor model compared to a one-, two, or three-factor model. In addition, this study conducted a latent profile analysis to examine patterns in response indicators within the sample data and found that distinct job embeddedness profiles emerged. Controlling for SDR (Socially Desirable Responding), these profiles showed unique patterns of job-based and non-job-based experiences that relate to staying on the job. Lastly, this study examined each job embeddedness profile and compared them with respect to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

INDEX WORDS: Job Embeddedness, Turnover Intentions, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Latent Profile Analysis.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wife and children, Melissa, Avery, Harper, and Lucas.

To the memory of my mother, Patricia A. Spivey, and my grandfather, Dr. Walter Nau.

Lastly, I dedicate every sentence to every professor who has had to read any written assignment of mine prior to writing this dissertation.

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"I am a lucky, lucky person."

- Evel Knievel

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIC	Akaike's Information Criterion
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BIC	Bayesian Information Criterion
BLRT	Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
HR	Human Resources
IRB	Institutional Review Board
JBF	Job-Based Fit
JBL	Job-Based Links
JBS	Job-Based Sacrifice
KUT	Klein Unidimensional Target
LMR	Lo-Mendell-Rubin
LMR LRT	Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted Likelihood Ratio Test
LPA	Latent Profile Analysis
NJBF	Non-Job-Based Fit
NJBL	Non-Job-Based Links
NJBS	Non-Job-Based Sacrifice
SABIC	Sample-Adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion
SDR	Social Desirability Responding

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

In the organizational behavior literature, many theories attempt to explain the relationships among work-related perceptions, job attitudes, and turnover. Models of turnover (e.g., March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Hom & Griffeth, 1995) typically include two significant categories of predictor variables, one emphasizing job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and one emphasizing ease of movement (reflected in perceived alternatives and job search behavior) (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). More specifically, if an individual believes that another job has more satisfaction factors than dissatisfaction within their current role, they will likely leave the organization if their organizational commitment is low. This focus on dissatisfaction, low commitment, and prevalent job alternatives dominate the study of voluntary turnover. Furthermore, while theoretical models strive to explain turnover, research to date explains relatively small amounts of variance in overall turnover (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008). Although generally supported, turnover models show modest success in actually predicting turnover (e.g., Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004).

One notable exception to this traditional paradigm is Lee and Mitchell's (1994) unfolding model of turnover. Departing from March and Simon's (1958) theory of job dissatisfaction resulting in employees leaving once they have reached a decision on the desirability and ease of movement, Lee and Mitchell (1999) call into question three key tenets of earlier models. Especially, Lee and Mitchell (1999) question the veridicality of the following:

(a) job dissatisfaction is a paramount turnover cause

(b) dissatisfied employees seek and leave for alternative (better) jobs, and

(c) prospective leavers compare alternatives to their current job based on a rational calculation of their subjective expected utility of job search and quitting (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017).

Just as Mobley (1977) elaborated a process model of how dissatisfaction evolves into turnover, the unfolding model provides a mechanism for how internal and/or external "shocks" are handled. Shocks are considered a particular, jarring event that initiates the psychological analysis involved in quitting a job (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008). This event causes an individual to reassess their goals and prospects in their current job and may often trigger the turnover process (leading to voluntary turnover) (Lee & Mitchell, 1999). In addition, many people leave because of discernable precipitating events, and many of these events occur off the job (e.g., a spouse relocates or an unsolicited job offer is received), resulting in turnover (Lee et al. 2004). Recently, however, the literature has shifted from understanding why individuals leave to understanding why they continue to remain (e.g., Lee et al., 2004; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007; Ng & Feldman, 2012).

One crucial implication that has emerged from this shift is the argument that whereas quitting a job is often preceded by some degree of thoughtful consideration (e.g., comparison with alternative jobs), remaining with an organization may be the result of maintaining the status quo (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2007). In response, Mitchell et al. (2001) sought to capture the forces that influence individuals to stay with organizations rather than why they leave. These researchers broadly conceptualized a general attachment composite construct called job embeddedness. Job embeddedness is a comprehensive view of the employee-employer relationship than what is typically reflected by attitudinal measures (e.g., job satisfaction or

organizational commitment) that places a central focus on how to keep individuals in an organization (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004). Mitchell and colleagues advanced this concept to explain how individual linkages (e.g., connections to valued aspects of one's work) collectively reinforce an individual's willingness to remain in their jobs (Collins, Burrus, & Meyer, 2014). More importantly, job embeddedness addresses the integrated forces to describe an individual's varying tendencies to maintain the employment status quo.

Job embeddedness is used to tap into an individual's feelings of attachment, framing it as an affective parallel to the more cognitively rooted turnover intent (Collins & Mossholder, 2017). According to the job embeddedness theory, an employee's personal values, career goals, and plans for the future must "fit" with the broader corporate culture and the demands of his or her immediate job (e.g., job knowledge, skills, and abilities) (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004). Additionally, job embeddedness theory suggests that the surrounding environment and perceptual factors significantly explain the extent to which an individual is attached to or embedded in a job, which determines employee retention (Halvorsen, Treuren, & Kulik, 2015).

The job embeddedness construct represents the extent to which an individual is attached or "embedded" with their current job. This attachment may stem from both job-based (organizational) and non-job-based (community/family) aspects. Moreover, multiple factors may be operating to determine an individual's level of embeddedness. These factors are typically framed in terms of three formative ties: fit, links, and sacrifices (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, one can view job embeddedness as a composite construct formed from two aspects (organization and community) and their attachment ties (links, fit, and sacrifice), creating six categories that result in a three × two matrix (Figure 1) (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007). The first attachment tie, fit, refers to how compatible individual feels with the company, organization,

or the local community to which they belong and how fit they feel for the job. The second attachment tie, links, refers to an individual's formal or informal connections with the organization and community. Links encompass tenure, length of association, number of connections, and communication (Charlier, Guay, & Zimmerman, 2016). These links include working relationships, where each individual is formally or informally linked to other people, teams, and organizations. The last attachment tie, sacrifice, refers to turnover's opportunity cost: the perceived cost of physical or psychological convenience sacrificed when leaving a current job (Chan, Ho, Sambasivan, & Ng, 2019). For example, individuals might consider the impact of nonportable benefits (e.g., pension plans or company-sponsored flexible spending accounts). Therefore, it is the totality of these forces (e.g., job-based links; non-job-based links) that keep employees in their positions rather than, or even in spite of, the negative attitudes that might prompt one to leave (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Crossley et al., 2007; Felps et al., 2009), thus, keeping the focus on what ties an individual to a particular job or organization rather than what pushes them to leave.

***FIGURE 1*: Job Embeddedness 3 x 2 Matrix**

	Job-Based	Non-Job-Based
Fit	Job-Based Fit	Non-Job-Based Fit
Links	Job-Based Links	Non-Job-Based Links
Sacrifice	Job-Based Sacrifice	Non-Job-Based Sacrifice

It is important to note that embeddedness does not cause one to increase relationships with their organization and/or community, make large purchases, get married, or have children. Instead, these activities determine the level of embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). Thus,

embeddedness may manifest in many different ways across different individuals. For example, the more links one has with both their organization and their outside community, the more likely they are to remain engaged, positive, and committed to the organization. Therefore, numerous links, a strong fit, and/or immense sacrifices are assumed to increase one's embeddedness and prevent them from quitting (Allen, Peltokorpi, & Rubenstein, 2016). More specifically, greater job embeddedness may increase motivation to perform because highly embedded individuals are connected to people and projects, feel they fit with their jobs, and attach a high cost to leaving (e.g., Greene, Mero, & Werner, 2018).

Empirical research has found that job- and non-job-based embeddedness and their attachment ties (e.g., links, fit, and sacrifice) are related to numerous outcomes. Outcomes include employee retention, performance, commitment, innovation, job satisfaction, and citizenship behaviors (e.g., Lee et al., 2004; Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee 2006; Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablynski, 2008; Felps et al., 2009; Hom et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2011). Correspondingly, management researchers have generally viewed higher levels of job embeddedness positively since embedded employees are less likely to terminate their employment voluntarily (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004; Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007; Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablynski, 2008; Harman et al., 2009; Hom et al., 2009). Not surprisingly, most studies have focused on the effects of job embeddedness on turnover intentions or actual turnover (Charlier, Guay, & Zimmerman, 2016).

Numerous studies have also demonstrated the negative relationship that job embeddedness has with turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and job alternatives (e.g., Allen, 2006; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Crossley et al., 2007; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). These studies

have further argued that relationships linking job embeddedness and work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment) reflect strong affective underpinnings.

Although much of the research has laid a foundation for examining job embeddedness as a predictively valid construct, efforts to develop the job embeddedness construct have included the development of a global measure based on a reflective measurement model (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007) to the addition and removal of several items from the original job embeddedness measure (e.g., Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). By and large, researchers have primarily investigated job embeddedness as a singular composite construct (e.g., Lee et al., 2004). This application of job embeddedness measures the aspects (e.g., job-based and non-job-based) and their attachment ties (e.g., fit, links, and sacrifices) using equal weights. However, the combination of the number and strength of one's relationships with other entities in the network may differ by the individual (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004). In other words, individuals may have the same job embeddedness score, but the grouping structure of the categories can be different. Some may have many weaker links; others may have few very strong links; and others may still have a mixture of weak and strong links that affect their perception of job embeddedness (Yao et al., 2004). For example, an individual may score low on the job-based sub-category but high on the non-job-based category. A second individual may score the opposite; high on the job-based category and low on the non-job-based category. The first individual may be new to their role, leading to few job-based links, making them not feel strongly about the compatibility between themselves and the organization, yet finds the pay and benefits (e.g., health insurance) very attractive. This individual may also have a significant local family base and participate heavily in the community atmosphere (e.g., hobbies). The second individual may feel that their personal values and role within the organization are a perfect fit, yet not care for the location, weather,

and/or amenities offered within their community space. In this case and based on previous research using the construct's average score, these two individuals will likely have comparable job embeddedness scores.

Efforts to further develop the job embeddedness construct have treated job embeddedness as an aggregate of the totality of links, fit, and sacrifices (e.g., Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). These studies have assumed that the three attachment ties (e.g., links, fit, and scarifies) operate additively to influence outcomes (Kiazad, Kraimer, & Seibert, 2019). Combining the categories in an additive approach may ignore the unique importance that individuals place on different components when forming a summary perception (Crossley et al., 2007). From the previous example, findings can translate empirically to individuals with high job-based embeddedness choosing to stay with the organization even if circumstances are less than ideal. In turn, these individuals may appear "stuck" with no further options but to stay. Another example would be why a sacrifice-embedded individual with poor fit might exhibit more extra-role activities if they have ample links, or vice versa (Kiazad, Kraimer, & Seibert, 2019). Therefore, little can be further asserted in understanding why these individuals are embedded unless a more comprehensive analysis of the job embeddedness categories occurs.

In research that's followed (e.g., Allen, 2006; Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, & Mitchell, 2012) has divided the construct into two distinct aspects (e.g., job-based and non-job-based embeddedness). These researchers have demonstrated that job-based embeddedness affects workplace attitudes (e.g., turnover intentions, job satisfaction, affective commitment) and behaviors (e.g., job search, performance) more strongly than non-job-based embeddedness. On the other hand, Ng and Feldman (2012) reported that job-based and non-job-based embeddedness are likely to be mutually reinforcing from their research. In contrast, as job

embeddedness's contributory factors continue to be explored as two distinct forms, researchers have reported individuals with more off-the-job embeddedness reported a weaker relationship to turnover intentions (e.g., Treuren and Fein, 2018; Porter et al., 2019). The evidence regarding the distinctiveness of job-based and non-job-based embeddedness and their attachment ties has shown inconsistent associations with variables, suggesting more research is needed to explore their utility and predictive ability (e.g., Dawley & Andrews, 2012).

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which different profiles underlying job embeddedness reliably emerge. In addition, then to what extent does membership within a job embeddedness profile demonstrate differential relationships with attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Kiazad et al., 2015). Theoretically, it is plausible that job embeddedness is investigated for the possibility of profiles. Meaning that since job embeddedness is considered an outcome of various job- and non-job-based experiences, individuals can experience varying levels of fit, links, and sacrifices that can influence a level of embeddedness within an organization.

This study sought first to examine each category of job embeddedness and determine an optimal model that best represents the job embeddedness construct. Once the best model was determined, this study further examined whether reliable profiles emerged using latent profile analysis. Latent profile analysis is a probabilistic or model-based technique that is a variant of the traditional cluster analysis. In practice, latent profile analysis is used to identify a set of discrete, exhaustive, and nonoverlapping latent classes of individuals based on individual responses to indicators (Tein, Coxe, & Cham, 2013).

Latent profile analysis also allows for the direct inclusion of covariates (or predictors) in the models, which benefits from adopting the organizational sciences' person-centered strategy to

complement the more traditional variable-centered approach (Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). The term person-centered is used to describe a variety of analytic strategies that cluster individuals (or other units) based on their shared characteristics instead of clustering (or factor analyzing) variables. Thus, a person-centered study can place a theoretical focus on the characteristics of people (e.g., personality, values, knowledge, skills, abilities) rather than those of situations (e.g., organizational structure, pay system, labor market conditions) in explaining and predicting outcomes of interest (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions). Moreover, a person-centered approach revealed complex interactions among multiple foci of job embeddedness more efficiently than standard analyses (e.g., multiple regressions).

This research study makes several contributions to job embeddedness theory. For one, this study responds to scholarly calls for profile research of job embeddedness (e.g., Lee et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2004; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). To date, no other research study has investigated patterns in responses and associations across the six categories of job embeddedness and applied a profile analysis for comprehensive profiles (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). While I expected the two aspects (e.g., job-based and non-job-based) and their attachment ties (e.g., links, fit, and sacrifice) to vary across individuals, this study also extends and enhances the understanding of the relationship job embeddedness has with attitudinal variables.

A second contribution is that job embeddedness profiles provide an opportunity to examine how the six theoretical categories (e.g., job-based fit, non-job-based fit, etc.) operate together, which have been examined separately in previous research. More specifically, how the categories of job embeddedness interact more clearly and provide a complete picture of the job

embeddedness construct. Turnover researchers have made the call for additional research on the job embeddedness categories to discover more discriminate properties and eliminate any overlap and further confusion with the categories (e.g., Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Researchers continue to find different relationships across categories and samples, leaving much to study in clarifying the job embeddedness construct (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014).

Lastly, a study such as this allows for the application of a new analytical mindset to the theory of job embeddedness. Applying an LPA mindset to job embeddedness is one that emphasizes more of a focus on individuals than variables when compared to many other analytical mindsets (Muthén & Muthén, 2000). In addition, this allows a more revolutionary departure from traditional thinking by prompting a more extreme reconceptualization of job embeddedness.

It is essential to emphasize the necessity of theoretical development and an appropriate conceptual approach before exploring the relationships between job embeddedness and other outcomes (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). While the process of measuring job embeddedness has not been well established, this lack of establishment has led to a misunderstanding of how the original construct operates.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, LITERATURE REVIEW, AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Theoretical Framework

The phenomenon of turnover has long fascinated organizational researchers and practitioners. Turnover is defined as the degree of individual movement across a social system's membership boundary, a useful conceptualization indicating that turnover is a process universal to all organizations (Price, 1977). Moreover, employee turnover may be a voluntary or involuntary act initiated by the organization or individual after establishing employment for any length of time (Lee et al., 2017).

The enduring focus on turnover mainly stems from the prevailing assumption that it has impactful consequences for organizational performance (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011), though not all turnover should be considered negative. At the same time, organizations may have little to no control over unavoidable turnover. In contrast, while avoidable voluntary turnover can be more detrimental and costlier, it can also undermine the organizational vision and mission. While organizations should monitor avoidable voluntary turnover where the individual quits the organization and some level of influence could have altered the individual's decision, neglecting to monitor can decrease the organization's ability to further control the costs of employee turnover (Guilding, Lamminmaki, & McManus, 2014).

According to earlier turnover research (e.g., March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977), the main reasons why an individual voluntarily leaves a job are a combination of negative job attitudes and perceived alternatives. Against this backdrop, this research paradigm has overlooked non-job factors and has focused enough on a consideration of factors that may hold a

person in a job (Yang, Ma & Hu, 2011). Turnover research has shown that relatively little is known about how individuals' attitudes are influenced by events that originate outside the organization that can impact voluntary turnover (Arciniega, Allen, & González, 2018). Though far less knowledge is gained about the reasons and processes involved with leaving, much of the research models that exist have focused on why employees leave (Lee et al., 1999). While it may overtly seem unrelated to look at the individual's outside community involvement, the fact that these communities can create ties of which the employee has a hard time letting go.

Realizing that the reasons for leaving a job are not the same as those factors leading individuals to stay, Mitchell et al. (2001) developed job embeddedness as an alternative view with respect to turnover. Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, and Erez (2001) originated job embeddedness to elucidate why people stay and thus supplement the age-old inquiry into why people leave (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017). The term "embeddedness" has been used in sociological literature to explain how social relations influence and constrain economic action (Granovetter, 1985; Uzzi, 1996, 1997; Mitchell et al., 2001). Based on this idea, job embeddedness views an embedded individual as a part of an elaborate web of relationships and attachments. Thus, the more complex web will have a more substantial influence on an individual considering making changes in one part of the web. Therefore, that change will have a ripple effect on many other features of the individual's life (Tanova & Holtom, 2008).

According to the theory of job embeddedness, an individual's personal values, career goals, and plans for the future must fit with the broader organizational culture and the demands of the individual's immediate job (e.g., job knowledge, skills, and abilities) (Mitchell et al., 2001). Therefore, the theory of job embeddedness can be considered to be the result of many possible fields, environmental, or contextual forces (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). In response,

individuals can become immersed (or even stuck) in a job by a composite set of forces operating in both work and community roles (Rubenstein, Peltokorpi, & Allen, 2020).

Job embeddedness theory proposes two aspects of embeddedness: job-based (e.g., positive co-worker relationships or good pay) and non-job-based (e.g., social network). Job-based embeddedness consists of work-related influences, whereas non-job-based embeddedness encompasses aspects of an individual's community life. Together, they keep individuals in these respective locations. Both job- and non-job-based can also represent social systems and a general form of attachment to a social entity (Singh, Shaffer, & Selvarajan, 2018).

The first aspect, job-based embeddedness, has been shown to affect workplace attitudes (e.g., turnover intentions, job satisfaction, affective commitment) and behaviors (job search, performance) more strongly than non-job-based embeddedness (e.g., Allen, 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2004). For example, research has shown that job-based embeddedness predicts organizational citizenship behavior; however, it did not predict turnover and absences (Lee et al., 2004). Findings from this study further demonstrated that job-based embeddedness moderates the positive effect of volitional absences on turnover, an adverse impact of job performance on turnover, and the negative effect of citizenship on absences (Lee et al., 2004). Other job embeddedness researchers have reported that job-based embeddedness is an important intervening variable between perceptions of leader-member exchange and subsequent employee performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablynski, 2008). Based on the initial job embeddedness construct, the aspect of job-based embeddedness has three attachment ties: job-based fit (fit within an organization), job-based links (connections with people in an organization), and job-based sacrifice (what the individual gives up when leaving their organization).

Job-based fit is defined as an individual's perception of comfort or compatibility they have with an organizational environment (e.g., "I fit with this organization's culture") (Holtom, Smith, Lindsay, & Burton, 2014). In other words, an individual's fit with the organization and their job relates to attachments within the organization (Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007). Furthermore, job choice and socialization are connected to an individual's perceptions of fit, affecting turnover. An example of a job-based fit is if the individual values being environmentally friendly and also works for an organization that supports recycling or feels they are a good fit with their job (Yang, Ma, & Hu, 2011). In summary, an individual remains in an employing organization insofar as mutual attraction persists; if (or when) either party no longer fits, the individual voluntarily or involuntarily leaves (Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007). Ensuring that individuals fit well within the organization's environment is one way for organizations to reduce early turnover.

Job-based links refer to the number of ties an individual may have with other people or activities within an organization. Examples of these links can be the individual's relationships with their work department or team and their relationships with co-workers or their manager. Furthermore, these relationships could be formal or informal, which can exert considerable normative pressure to stay on the job (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Taylor, 2009). Because organizational links can be characterized as formal or informal social ties to people in an organization, they can be viewed as a type of job resource that fosters work engagement. Therefore, the greater the number of links between the individual and their network and the more important those links are, the more they are bound to the job, the supervisor, and entities in the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004; Chan et al., 2019).

Job-based sacrifices were conceived based on work primarily of March and Simon (1958), which perceive that an individual's job evaluation is based on the ease of job tasks and working environment (Mitchell et al., 2001). This attachment tie of the job-based aspect refers to the rewards or benefits individuals have to give up if they left their organizations (Ng & Feldman, 2012). These sacrifices envelop the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that may be forfeited by leaving one's job (Dawley, Houghton, & Bucklew, 2010). For example, leaving an organization could translate to personal losses such as giving up colleagues, special projects, or even a short commute. Therefore, the more an individual could forfeit when leaving, the more difficult it is to sever employment with an organization.

The second aspect of job embeddedness is non-job-based, which can be viewed as the extent to which an individual is enmeshed in the nonwork spaces where the individual has deep psychological and emotional relationships, such as relationships with family or friends, involvements in hobbies or social activities, and any other essential aspects in the nonwork spaces (Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). For example, having children attend the local high school is likely to lead to non-job-based embeddedness (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Non-job-based embeddedness represents the global perceptions of attachment to a community regardless of the underlying reasons for that attachment (e.g., affective, continuance, or normative commitment to a community) (Crossley et al., 2007). Such reasons play a dominant role when leaving jobs for alternatives if a geographic relocation is involved, notably if an individual actively participates in community organizations (e.g., church leadership) or has a working partner (Hom et al., 2012). For example, some individuals may develop more social relationships the longer they remain in a community. Job embeddedness researchers generally concur that the effects of job embeddedness are most substantial when

individuals have high non-job-based embeddedness as well (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004; Feldman, Ng, & Vogel, 2012). Just as with job-based, non-job-based embeddedness has three attachment ties: non-job-based fit (fit within a community), non-job-based links (connections with people in their community), and non-job-based sacrifice (what the individual gives up if leaving their community).

Non-job-based fit is the extent to which individuals' needs and interests are congruent with the community's environment (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Additionally, non-job-based fit can be perceived as the comfort or compatibility an individual has with their community environment (e.g., "I really love the area I live in") (Holtom et al., 2014). Moreover, individuals who appreciate community qualities (e.g., climate, local, culture, amenities, activity levels) (Mitchell et al., 2001). Varying by region and location, for one to leave a job could mean giving up amenities (including hobbies) and the general culture of the location in which one resides.

Non-job-based links refer to the number of attachments individuals have with other people and activities in their community (including with family) by imposing normative pressures to stay (Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003) or building social capital (Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee, 2006). These non-job-based links are the relationships that the individual has in the area, especially with friends, relatives, and possibly other organizations. It is important to note that non-job-based links can vary in several ways, such as owning a home or belonging to a community. Additionally, non-job-based links consider the existence of links outside of whether family or friends want the individual to quit their job. These individuals may feel constrained by having personal links and connections, independent of how others feel (Mitchell et al., 2001).

Non-job-based sacrifices are community sacrifices that refer to the benefits people would have to give up if they left their communities, such as easy access to recreational areas or cultural opportunities (Mitchell et al., 2001; Sweet, Swisher, & Moen, 2005; Voydanoff, 2005). Relationships that are non-job-based (e.g., friends or volunteer groups) also may exert normative control overstaying (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Hom et al., 2012). Explanatory mechanisms translating the impact of sacrifices have been grounded in turnover theories (e.g., Mobley, 1977; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998). Furthermore, these theories posit that higher perceived costs of leaving deter individuals from leaving organizations. For example, nonportable benefits or training become investments that escalate over time and embed people (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). According to Holtom and Inderrieden (2006), non-job-based sacrifices become mostly an issue (for example) when relocating jobs. The individual may have to leave a community that is attractive, safe, or liked or respected, which cannot always be easy. However, this does not mean that an individual cannot change jobs but stay in the same community. Instead, various conveniences like flexible work hours (and other perks) may be lost by changing employers (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006).

Kiazad et al. (2015) commented that two fundamental underpinnings of job embeddedness theory are worth noting. First, from the perspective of previous turnover studies (e.g., March & Simon, 1958), job embeddedness reduces the desirability of movement by representing a state of inertia or stuckness about an individual's job change propensities. According to the multi-foci view of Kiazad et al. (2015), such a state of inertia is formed by various organizational, occupational, and community-based factors. These factors will encourage one to remain with the organization, even when staying is not seen or considered in part of the choice process (Mitchell et al., 2001). Second, Mitchell et al.'s view implies that job

embeddedness' attachment ties (e.g., links, fit, and sacrifices) manifest additive and compensatory effects on staying (Kiazad et al., 2015). For example, a dissatisfied individual may not necessarily quit their job if they have many attachments to co-workers or feel compatible with the work environment (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Thus, the forces that embedded individuals are likely to differ in strength with stronger and more forces compensating for weaker ones (Kiazad et al., 2015).

Literature Review

Job embeddedness has been found to predict turnover in healthcare and retail (e.g., Mitchell et al.,2001), in banking (e.g., Felps et al., 2009), in the military (e.g., Smith, Holtom, & Mitchell, 2011), and across cultures (e.g., Mallol, Holtom, & Lee, 2007; Tanova & Holtom, 2008; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Additional research has shown that job embeddedness may act as a buffer or mediating factor between an event that can cause an individual to consider leaving (e.g., large-scale organizational layoffs) and voluntary turnover (e.g., Burton et al., 2010; Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2012). In turn, those with higher levels of job embeddedness were more likely to remain in the organization or absorb these events than those with lower levels (Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2012).

Examining the psychological reasons why people may choose to stay or leave an organization, a meta-analysis by Jiang et al. (2012) introduced an overall model of the relationships between job embeddedness and turnover outcomes. After controlling for job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job alternatives, Jiang et al. (2012) demonstrated that national culture, organization type, and gender moderate job-based and non-job-based embeddedness, explaining incremental variance in both turnover intentions and actual turnover. More specifically, these researchers presented meta-analytic evidence where non-job-based

embeddedness is inversely related to turnover across different organizational types, cultures, and gender. However, its effects on intentions to quit were weaker relative to job-based embeddedness. Extending their reasoning, Jiang et al. (2012) further reported several contributions to the job embeddedness and turnover relationship.

First, Jiang et al. (2012) reported that a negative relationship between job-based embeddedness and turnover intentions within public organizations was significantly stronger than in private organizations. This negative relationship can be explained by the notion that public organizations foster secure and low-risk jobs and value intrinsic factors such as job content (Jiang et al., 2012). On the other hand, private organizations encourage competition and are more likely to value extrinsic factors such as income and promotions.

Second, no significant relationship in individualist cultures, while collectivist cultures displayed a significant negative correlation to the relationship between non-job-based embeddedness and turnover intentions was reported (Jiang et al., 2012). For example, collectivistic cultures may devote a great deal of personal time and effort to establishing and maintaining job- and non-job-based relationships. As a result, they respond to job embeddedness cues (e.g., perceived links with co-workers as necessary for their well-being), thereby anticipating more psychological costs when leaving their jobs (Jiang et al., 2012). In contrast, individualistic cultures tend to place more importance on their accomplishments and be less receptive to embeddedness in general (e.g., relationships with co-workers as not crucial for their well-being). Therefore, collectivist cultures may place more importance on time and effort to foster relationships and maintain positive, healthy communities. Moreover, collectivists often live close to their extended families or even close friends, whereas individualists tend to live with their immediate families composed of their partner and children (Jiang et al., 2012).

Finally, Jiang et al.'s (2012) reported in their meta-analysis that job embeddedness impacts female and male employees' turnover outcomes differentially. More specifically, gender was a moderating factor in the relationship between job embeddedness and voluntary turnover. Though gender had little influence on non-job-based embeddedness and actual turnover linkage, gender did moderate the negative job-based embeddedness and actual turnover relationship, such that it was significantly stronger in women (Jiang et al., 2012). This finding supports previous research (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001) that compared with men, women may be more receptive to job embeddedness cues and, accordingly, pay more attention to the accruements they have earned within their organizations.

Females have been viewed to be less attached to their organizations than males in previous research as well. Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner (2000) found no significant differences among males and females in terms of the level of job embeddedness they possessed. In contrast, Ng and Feldman (2010) found that women did have higher perceptions of organizational embeddedness than men. Though not the focus of this study, further research should consider focusing on gender and its relationship with job embeddedness.

Regardless of gender, organization, or culture, job embeddedness possesses a fundamental difference, not just focusing on why individuals may leave their current job but rather on why this same individual remains at the current job (Reitz, 2014). Rather than focus on why individuals leave, scholars and researchers alike should be equally focused on why specific individuals stay (Holtom et al., 2008). Although the act of leaving is merely the opposite of staying, job embeddedness contends that motives for leaving and staying are not necessarily polar opposites (Hom et al., 2017). Since it is critical to identify ways to foster embeddedness

and expand its nomological network (Kiazad et al., 2015), further understanding of the factors that help promote embeddedness within work and community settings is needed.

The question of why people leave and why people stay is paramount if only based on the sheer cost of turnover (Borah & Malakar, 2015). In a short time-span, research has mushroomed and established that job embeddedness explains additional variance in turnover beyond that explained by traditional determinants, such as job attitudes (Hom et al., 2017; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014; Jiang et al., 2012). Furthermore, it adds clarity to the extensive list of job and non-job-based factors that create forces for staying on a job. Besides promoting job retention, further exploration of job embeddedness has excellent potential to lower turnover costs. Moreover, the value of job embeddedness in retaining employees might be amplified when an organization wants to retain its key individuals. Thus, even modest reductions in turnover resulting from enhanced job embeddedness generally pay off, particularly for key employees (Jiang et al., 2012).

Prior to job embeddedness, factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intent were assessed to understand voluntary turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). While the turnover literature has assessed these factors, job embeddedness has several critical distinctions worth noting. First, while job satisfaction and organizational commitment focus primarily on job-related factors, job embeddedness includes job-based and non-job-based factors. With respect to job satisfaction, it has been so central to how we think about turnover that it might as well be called the “cardinal job attitude” and prime antecedent to employee turnover (Lee, Hom, Eberly, & Li, 2018). Also, it serves as the starting point for many turnover process models (e.g., Mobley, 1977; Hom et al., 1992; Hom & Kinicki, 2001). However, job embeddedness researchers have argued that these process models, although successfully

identifying turnover predictors, explain only a limited percentage of voluntary turnover (e.g., Mallol, Holtom & Lee, 2007). Additionally, job embeddedness itself has been found to be a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (e.g., Griffeth et al., 2000) since it accounts for factors that are non-job related.

A second critical distinction is based on Maertz and Campion's (2004) content model of turnover, which suggests that people have different motives for staying or leaving, job satisfaction, and the various forms of commitment represent specific reasons for being attached. In contrast, job embeddedness assesses the extent to which people feel attached, regardless of why they feel that way, how much they like it, or whether they chose to be so attached (Crossley et al., 2007). The distinction between job embeddedness and related constructs is of particular importance when one considers broad theories of job mobility. Therefore, the reasons individuals are attached are of less importance than the extent to which they are attached.

Further research has argued that job embeddedness is a direct antecedent to turnover intent; similarly, organizational commitment has a negative impact on turnover intentions (e.g., Lee et al., 2004). In addition, both constructs are regarded as a composite set of retention-related dispositions. Initially, it is essential to point out that organizational commitment is concerned with organizational issues. Compared to organizational commitment, job embeddedness represents factors outside the workplace and is not always affective in nature, meaning that embeddedness will consider contextual factors (e.g., homeownership). Furthermore, job embeddedness considers factors at both the organizational level (e.g., job-based) and the individual's community level (e.g., non-job-based) when considering forces that keep the individual in his or her job (Swider et al., 2011).

In addition to conceptual differences, organizational commitment and job embeddedness have been shown to be empirically distinct (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001), such that job embeddedness negatively predicts voluntary turnover above and beyond organizational commitment. Similarly, studies by Lee et al. (2004), Mallol et al. (2007), and Cunningham et al. (2005) showed that job embeddedness predicted turnover, over and above job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Within the embeddedness literature, turnover intentions have a direct relationship with job embeddedness. Turnover intent is defined as the probability that an individual will leave an organization (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979). Research has shown that turnover is motivated by dissatisfaction with some aspects of the work environment or organization (Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee, 2006). In response to this dissatisfaction, these individuals will typically display behaviors such as poor performance or attendance. Once dissatisfaction sets in, an individual presumably seeks out other work alternatives (Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee, 2006). Hence, an individual with high withdrawal and intention to leave the organization might finally leave the organization. Therefore, to reduce turnover intention, organizations need to find ways to allow individuals to feel satisfied with their jobs and the organization. Though keeping individuals engaged and satisfied takes more than just good pay and benefits, increasing job embeddedness can foster an increased sense of security and stability (Lee et al., 2004).

One similar construct to job embeddedness rooted in the turnover literature that needs to be distinguished is work engagement. Work engagement is an active, positive work-related state of how one is attached to their job that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, 2012). Empirically, positive associations between work engagement and job embeddedness have been established. Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008) discussed that work

engagement represents a positive work-focused psychological state, whereas job embeddedness is a collection of forces keeping an employee in the job. Comparable to job-based links, the availability of job resources (e.g., work social support) in an organization enhances an individuals' work engagement. Engaged individuals are embedded in their jobs because they find that their future career goals and plans fit with the organizational culture and the demands of their jobs (e.g., job skills) (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). As such, these individuals display low levels of turnover intentions and have high-quality job performance. However, work engagement researchers have begun to research the non-job-based antecedents and consequences of how work engagement spill-over to leisure and private life, yet they lack in accounting communal factors (e.g., Amin, Arshad, & Ghani, 2017).

The concept of job embeddedness has established the basis to build work environments spawning connectivity; thus, ultimately diminishing the number of employees who voluntarily leave the organization (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Holtom et al., 2006; Burton et al., 2010). However, a deeper understanding of an individual's job embeddedness' phenomenon still warrants further exploration through the perceptions and the lived experiences of individuals who stay with an organization (Cohen, 2006; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2006; Zhao & Liu, 2010). An overview of the literature review approach can be found in Appendix C.

Hypothesis Development

Factor Model. Job embeddedness was conceptualized as a formative measure that captures variable indicators for both job and non-job-based aspects of fit, links, and sacrifices. In a formative model, responses to items combine summatively to form the respondent's level on a latent construct, whereas, in a reflective model, responses to items reflect the respondent's level on the latent construct (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000). In a reflective model, the direction flows

from the construct to the construct's indicators or items, and the latent construct exists independently of the measures. In comparison, depending on the construct, the construct and the indicators directly affect their corresponding latent variable in a formative model.

Mitchell et al. (2001) developed a 40-item survey that captures a composite variable for each category. By conducting an exploratory factor analysis on each of the six variables, Mitchell et al. (2001) assessed whether the items in each of the six categories were reasonably correlated. Following this assessment, alpha reliabilities for each dimension were calculated to obtain evidence that the items within a dimension were internally consistent (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Mitchell et al., 2001). As a result, Mitchell et al. (2001) created a mean composite variable for each category, which produced an aggregate measure of embeddedness (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004). In other words, job- and non-job-based fit, links, and sacrifice contribute to job embeddedness, but job embeddedness does not cause fit, links, or sacrifice (Ng & Feldman, 2010). Together, these factors exert force on individuals to stay with their current employers. For example, being married or owning one's home may cause people to be embedded in their job, whereas being embedded in one's job does not cause a person to get married or own a home (Holtom et al., 2014).

Much of the early studies that have operationalized job embeddedness use the original set of embeddedness items or some variation. For example, Lee et al. (2004) refined the composite measure to 32-items to separate and measure embeddedness into two aspects (e.g., job- and non-job-based) instead of the construct as a whole. Job embeddedness researchers (e.g., Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012) have argued that the composite measure posed by Lee et al. (2004) is ambiguous in the direction of causality between items and their latent construct. Later, Holtom et al. (2006) further shortened the original composite measure by creating a 21-item shortened

version by averaging the six job embeddedness categories. Job embeddedness researchers have sought to minimize the length of the survey tool to reduce fatigue and acquiescent responding. Though simply reducing scale length to maximize survey tools used in organizational surveys may jeopardize content validity (Breaugh & Colihan, 1994).

Although the original framework clearly explicates six categories of job embeddedness residing in two aspects (e.g., job- and non-job-based), there are now competing positions about the structure of job embeddedness. Criticizing the utility of a formative measure of job embeddedness, Crossley et al. (2007) argued instead for a reflective model (Robinson et al., 2014). Crossley et al. (2007) developed a reflective seven-item global job embeddedness measure, suggesting that respondents' overall impressions of attachment to an organization (Clinton, Knight, & Guest, 2012). After controlling for the composite measure and work behaviors and attitudes, Crossley et al. (2007) postulated that their global measure predicts variations in intentions to quit, intention to job search, and turnover. In sum, Crossley et al. (2007, 2015) measured job embeddedness directly from the construct level, emphasizing that the construct as a whole is greater than the sum of the six categories.

Crossley et al. (2007) argue that their global measure has advantages over the previous composite measures (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004). First, since a reflective global scale can be assessed with items that use the same response format, this allows it to overcome some statistical limitations outside the use of a composite scale. Staying at a general level also allows the entire construct to be assessed with a few reflective indicators. This allows a global survey to appear more practical and improve the accuracy and response rate. Second, since the composite measures may omit aspects that may be important to the individual, a global measure of embeddedness survey asks general, non-invasive questions regarding how enmeshed

individuals are in their job, regardless of personal reasons (Yang, Ma, & Hu, 2011). In this case, when using the global measure, an individual could report the individual's embeddedness perception by mainly assessing non-job-based factors. In contrast, when combining factors additively in the composite measure, the final score of embeddedness is the average of job-based and non-job-based factors, which cannot capture the unique weightings (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012).

In further comparison to the global measure, the composite measure has the advantage of theoretical richness and contributions because it explicitly includes non-attitudinal and non-job-based factors. Moreover, a global measure does not consider that individuals can become embedded in many ways as the effects of the six categories may vary across people, jobs, and such circumstances as an employee's age or an employing organization's size (Mitchell et al., 2001). Clinton, Knight, and Guest (2012) argued that this is a significant shortcoming since one of the strongest arguments in favor of considering job embeddedness as a unique factor influencing turnover is its inclusion of off-the-job influences (Clinton, Knight, & Guest, 2012). In response, Clinton, Knight, and Guest (2012) developed a reflective measure for job embeddedness by introducing a 12-item instrument to be used for both on-and off-the-job embeddedness. This measurement's approach allowed a short two-factor reflective measure to reflect a balance of the job embeddedness categories, with fewer questions than the original composite. Currently, Clinton, Knight, and Guest's (2012) measure has received no use outside of its preliminary article, raising questions of its validity outside of the original samples (Heritage, Gilbert, & Roberts, 2016).

As with many measurement models, job embeddedness researchers report several psychometric criteria within their research, such as reliability (e.g., internal consistency) and

validity (e.g., construct validity, discriminant validity, and concurrent validity). For example, in most studies, job embeddedness researchers have calculated a coefficient alpha (e.g., Chronbach's alpha) of internal consistency for each category of job embeddedness. This may be not because they were particularly valid for causal indicators, but simply to obtain some evidence that the items within a dimension were internally consistent (Yang, Ma, & Hu, 2011). Though coefficient alphas are useful for descriptive purposes in studies that utilize the composite measure (Felps et al., 2009), methods for evaluating the psychometric properties of formative measurement models are less developed (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005).

With regards to validity, previous research that has tested the discriminant validity with confirmatory factor analysis has done so with a reflective measurement model where the mathematical relationships were represented as causal arrows pointing from the constructs to the items (Cunningham, Fink, & Sagas 2005; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). The validity of these studies' findings is questionable because a reflective measurement model is inconsistent with the formative framework of job embeddedness theory.

Job embeddedness researchers have argued the issue of whether embeddedness should be measured as an equally weighted composite (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2004) or as a global gestalt variable (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007; Clinton, Knight, & Guest, 2012). Composite measures assess complex concepts more adequately than single indicators, extend the range of scores available, and are more efficient at handling multiple items (Yang, Ma, & Hu, 2011). Also, variables in composite models are created by combining two or more separate empirical indicators into a single measure. In contrast, a global measure of variables is created by generalizing indicators into the scale to evaluate the comprehensive attachment. In response, job

embeddedness researchers have argued that the composite job embeddedness scale can constitute as a mixed measure of formative and reflective (e.g., Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). On the other hand, the argument still exists that job embeddedness be treated as an aggregate model, therefore, as a formative measurement model (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2010; Robinson et al., 2014).

Though the reflective and composite job embeddedness scales have strengths and shortcomings, both approaches statistically explain a significant amount of variability in turnover and other criterion variables beyond variability explained by other work behaviors. Jiang et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis has given further evidence that job embeddedness, whether operationalized as a composite measure or as global perceptions, negatively predicts voluntary turnover (Ng, Yam, & Aguinis, 2019). However, I, along with other researchers (e.g., Heritage, Gilbert, & Roberts, 2016), argue that the measurement of job embeddedness is an area that warrants further investigation. Moreover, the response methods, scope, and parsimony of each measure may influence these measure's criterion validity.

Regardless of a formative versus global approach, most models that have measured job embeddedness with less than six factors assume correlation and covariance across the six categories. Therefore, I am arguing that the six categories of job embeddedness are not necessarily correlated, yet they reflect distinct categories. In response to this argument, I will conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to verify the discriminant validity of job embeddedness aspects and their attachment ties. More specifically, using the underlying responses to the Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument, I will test four structural equation models using a confirmatory analysis.

This approach will allow an evaluation of the items used to measure job embeddedness is best represented by a one-factor, two-factor, three-factor, or six-factor model in terms of fit. Those models are as follows:

1. one-factor model (job embeddedness)
2. two-factor model (job-based and non-job-based factor)
3. three-factor model (fit, links, and sacrifices)
4. six-factor model (job-based fit, job-based links, job-based sacrifices, non-job-based fit, non-job-based links, and non-job-based sacrifices).

Therefore, expecting that the items which are used to measure job embeddedness to load on six distinct factors in confirmatory factor analysis, I am proposing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 – A six-factor model of job embeddedness provides the best fit to the data corresponding to the original scale instead of a one-, two-, and three-factor model.

Job Embeddedness Profiles. Assuming that the confirmatory factor analysis will support a six-factor model, I will utilize a person-centered approach to group respondents who share a number of complex interactions into profiles. A more person-centered approach to job embeddedness will allow a more comprehensive capture of interactions among the various factors driving an individual's preference of and control over leaving and staying (Li, Lee, Mitchell, Hom, & Griffeth, 2016). In addition, since no study to date has taken a profile approach to this construct, applying a person-centered mindset will advance job embeddedness research by allowing an easier way to communicate the aspects of job embeddedness and their attachment ties to a lay audience (Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright, 2005).

Job embeddedness researchers have primarily utilized variable-centered approaches to job embeddedness. They have implicitly assumed that being high or low on job embeddedness

perceptions in the form of an overall composite indicates that individuals perceive each aspect and their attachment ties uniformly. Simply extending findings from variable-centered analyses of job embeddedness would be insufficient. Results from variable-centered methods represent a synthesis of the relations observed in every individual from a study, yet rarely describe factors at the individual level with high validity (Von Eye & Wiedermann, 2015). Moreover, variable-centered methods summarize data by average levels and variability in different dimensions of competencies across observed subgroups or measurement points. Though their results are significant in their own right; however, they ignore that individuals may not only be within different subpopulations in which the observed relations between variables may differ, yet uniquely embedded in their jobs.

For this study, a person-centered approach will have several benefits over a variable-approach. First, rather than relying upon strictly theoretical categorizations, a person-centered approach will allow this study to identify similar ways in which individuals characterize their job- and non-job-based experiences. In contrast, a variable-centered approach would not account for the clustering of job- and non-job-based aspect attributes among these individuals. Second, an approach such as this will enable this study to gain more comprehensive knowledge of which job- and non-job-based attributes and their attachment ties are more relevant to individuals' subgroups and identify the particular subgroups for which managerial interventions would be most beneficial. Finally, this approach can identify unobservable moderating factors (as reflected in the profile membership) that can account for diverse individuals. Therefore, I contend that a person-centered approach will prove more illuminating (e.g., identifying qualitatively distinct levels) than the general variable-centered approach (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2012).

In order to examine the complex interactions among multiple variables, these interactions are likely to exceed the power of traditional analytic strategies such as moderated multiple regression or structural equation modeling (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2011; Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013). Therefore, conducting a latent profile analysis (LPA) will allow mixtures of factor distributions with similar distinct characteristics to be detected and theoretically grouped. LPA is a model-based cluster analytic technique that attempts to classify individuals into meaningful and unique categories (Kabins et al., 2016). Considering the nature of the LPA mindset, it follows that any areas of research typically prompting a regression mindset but involving the study of variables that could be considered as a coherent system may be recast in a theoretically useful way by adopting an LPA mindset (Zyphur, 2009).

LPA is considered a person-centered method because it seeks to determine patterns of multiple variables within individuals that then consistently recur, in contrast to the effects of single interactions across individuals. Like LPA, other person-centered approaches like cluster analysis and latent class analysis focus on relations among individuals to sort individuals into groups of individuals who are similar to each other and different from those in other groups. Although cluster analyses are an interesting tool for the study of individuals' profiles, they present several limitations (Milligan & Cooper, 1987; Speece, 1994): (a) they provide no clear guideline to help in identifying the correct number of clusters in the data; (b) their results may vary according to the retained clustering algorithm and are sensitive to measurement scales and distributions, and even to the ordering of cases in the data; and (c) they rely on relatively rigid assumptions (e.g., conditional independence and class-invariant variances) that often prove unrealistic with real-life data (Morin et al., 2011).

Although these person-centered statistical techniques are available, LPA was more useful in this study over a cluster analysis since it will allow for more rigorous empirical criteria to be applied (Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013) for determining the number of job embeddedness profiles. Moreover, and specific to this study, LPA allowed the detection of fractional cluster memberships, unlike traditional clustering methods. LPA treats profile membership as an unobserved categorical variable, where its value indicates which profile an individual belongs to with a certain degree of probability (Spurk, Hirschi, Wang, Valero, & Kauffeld, 2020).

A general challenge for research applying a profile analysis is ascertaining the number and nature of profiles that can emerge. While researchers can examine a variety of different cluster solutions, use theory and their judgment to decide upon a solution instead of relying upon statistics (Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007), profiles that emerge can differ along with profile indicators quantitatively or qualitatively. Quantitative differences exist when profiles are ordered so that they simply differ in terms of the level of all their component dimensions, which rely on distinct numeric algorithms to derive their category structure. For example, if three groups were identified, one with high scores, one with moderate scores, and one with low scores on all six categories of job embeddedness, the differences would be considered quantitative only (Meyer, Stanly, & Vandenberg, 2013). Reporting only quantitative level differences (e.g., with one profile simply presenting a higher level of job embeddedness than another) would have no heuristic value for this study (Morin & Marsh, 2015).

In contrast, qualitative differences exist when the relative level of the component dimensions differs across profiles. For example, one hypothetical profile might be characterized by high indicators of job- and non-job-based fit and sacrifice but low indicators of job- and non-job-based links. Another hypothetical profile might be characterized by high indicators of job-

based links and fit non-job-based fit, links, and sacrifices, but low indicators of job-based sacrifices. While quantitative level effects can be easily accommodated in continuous latent variable models (e.g., main effects within regression analyses), qualitatively different profiles of job embeddedness can provide new and theoretically interesting information.

Though it is plausible for a number of profiles to emerge, it would be unrealistic to provide specific hypotheses regarding the relationships between the aspects of job embeddedness and their attachment ties with respect to possible profiles. In addition, proposing a hypothesis to identify the number and nature of the profiles may consequently bias the results (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2017). Therefore, if distinct profiles of individuals that share similar patterns of variable indicators emerge, they will be identified and compared with other profiles, both in terms of how the variable indicators combine to form the profiles and how those combinations are differentially related (Collins & Lanza, 2009; Wang & Hanges, 2011).

Researchers have successfully applied LPA to the organizational commitment literature by examining combinations of the four targets of commitment (e.g., affective, normative, perceived sacrifices, and few alternatives) and how profiles differentially relate to outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions and performance) (e.g., Hom et al., 2012; Stanley, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Bentein, 2013; Meyer, Morin, &Vandenberghe, 2015). For example, Meyer, Morin, and Vandenberghe (2015) identified qualitatively different commitment profiles by showing that one group of individuals had high normative and affective commitment levels but low levels in continuance commitment. In contrast, another group had high continuance commitment levels but low levels in all other types (Spurk et al., 2020).

There is the case that my earlier hypothesis concerning the six-factor model of job embeddedness providing the best fit is not accurate. The results from hypothesis one may

indicate that a two-, or three-factor model is more statistically superior when compared with the six-factor model. On the other hand, I may find that the three-factor model is marginally better when compared with the two-factor model or vice versa. If the six-factor model is determined not to be the best fitting solution, the model tests' results will determine the LPA input. Therefore, identifying and grouping individuals who share similar profiles based on multiple indicators of job embeddedness by conducting a latent profile analysis, I pose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Distinct profiles of job embeddedness will emerge.

Job Embeddedness Profile Membership with respect to Organizational Commitment. Job embeddedness and organizational commitment are regarded as a composite set of retention-related dispositions. Similar to embeddedness, research has indicated that organizational commitment is a significant predictor of job satisfaction and turnover (e.g., Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mitchell et al., 2001). Organizational commitment is viewed as an attitude that reflects the relative strength of an individual's psychological attachment that characterizes their relationships with the organization and has implications for the decision to stay with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990). As an essential quality for organizations, organizational commitment can indicate a more stable, engaged, and higher performing individual. Individuals who have a strong relationship with the organization have less intention to move toward another organization than individuals who are not affectively and strongly committed, just as individuals with high levels of job embeddedness.

With regards to job embeddedness profiles, I expect profiles to vary in relation to organizational commitment. While the categories of job-based sacrifice and non-job-based links have displayed a positive relationship with organizational commitment (e.g., Mitchell et al.,

2001; Lee et al., 2004), job embeddedness profiles with a high or moderate job-based fit, for example, may reflect some positive affect toward organizations. In other words, individuals in these profiles may stay specifically because they feel they fit well in their jobs, can apply their skills, and their future goals mesh well with the organization. Similarly, a job embeddedness profile may emerge with high or moderate job-based links that may signify an increased sense of obligation to co-workers due to the number of teams or committees the individual works with. These two hypothetical job embeddedness profiles could indicate higher organizational commitment than other job embeddedness profiles, for example, with low job-based fit, links and sacrifices, and high non-job-based links (e.g., more friends and family in their community).

While it may be unrealistic to provide a specific hypothesis regarding the variance in specific profiles with organizational commitment, I investigated whether the emerging job embeddedness profiles displayed a difference in means with organizational commitment. Specifically, I tested for means differences in each form of affective, continuance, and continuance commitment. In addition, I tested for means differences in job embeddedness profiles by assessing organizational commitment reflecting the Klein, Molloy, and Brinsfield (2014) Unidimensional Target neutral (KUT) Commitment Measure. The KUT is a measure intended to be unidimensional and applicable across all workplace targets (Klein et al., 2014). Klein et al. recast the organizational commitment construct to be a target-free measure that claims to provide greater comparability of results within and across studies, bringing increased coherence and synergy to commitment (Klein et al., 2014).

Klein et al. (2014) argued that researchers would not have to struggle with modifying measures written for a different target and embedded with assumptions nonapplicable to their target of interest. Therefore, an analysis of the means addressed the likelihood a job

embeddedness profile has an influence or effect on organizational commitment. Such differences will help establish the construct validity of the job embeddedness profiles and facilitate further theoretical developments (Sinclair et al., 2005). Therefore, I am proposing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 – There will be significant mean differences in levels of organizational commitment across job embeddedness profiles.

Job Embeddedness Profile Membership with respect to Job Satisfaction. Job embeddedness has been found to be positively, significantly, and moderately correlated with job satisfaction (Mitchell et al., 2001). Job satisfaction is an attitude that individuals have about their jobs and the organizations in which they perform these jobs (Spector, 1977). Additionally, job satisfaction is an employee's affective reaction to a job, based on a comparison between actual outcomes and desired outcomes. Job satisfaction is generally recognized as a multifaceted construct that includes individuals' feelings concerning various intrinsic and extrinsic job factors. Intrinsic factors are derived from internally mediated rewards, such as the job itself and opportunities for personal growth and accomplishment, while extrinsic factors result from externally mediated rewards such as satisfaction with pay and health benefits, organizational policies and support, management, co-workers, and job security.

While job satisfaction, by definition, excludes those aspects of non-job-based embeddedness, job embeddedness researchers have specifically focused job satisfaction primarily with job-based embeddedness. Specifically, reporting that non-job-based embeddedness primarily influences non-job-related behaviors and generally exhibits lower correlations with overall job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2004). However, job embeddedness researchers have begun to question if incorporating non-job-based factors can provide a more

realistic understanding of why individuals consider leaving their organization as opposed to focusing directly on job satisfaction (Fasbender, Van der Heijden, & Grimshaw, 2018). Moreover, these researchers reported that when individuals were not only focused on their work role but also on their roles outside work (e.g., non-job-based fit, links, and sacrifices), the impact of job satisfaction was shown to be strengthened even further (Fasbender, Van der Heijden, & Grimshaw, 2018).

Thus, since job embeddedness provides some evidence for the value of combining attachment and retention-related forces, which is consistent with the concept of job satisfaction (Xu & Payne, 2018), a job embeddedness profile that has significantly moderate or higher job-based links, fit, and sacrifice with lower levels of non-job-based embeddedness may experience higher job satisfaction than other possible profiles. On the other hand, job embeddedness profiles characterized by low job-based attachment ties (e.g., fit, links, and sacrifice) and moderate to high non-job-based attachment ties (e.g., fit, links, and sacrifice) may likely experience reduced job satisfaction. Correspondingly, these individuals may be unwilling to increase efforts to their work or take on new challenges within their organization.
While it may create bias in hypothesizing specific job embeddedness profiles and their variance on job satisfaction, I am proposing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 – There will be a significant mean difference in levels of job satisfaction across job embeddedness profiles.

Job Embeddedness Profile Membership with respect to Turnover Intentions. Job embeddedness goes beyond a combination of measures of the perceived desirability and ease of movement (e.g., organizational commitment and job satisfaction) in predicting turnover. Consequently, a number of job embeddedness studies have been built on the understanding of

turnover intention to address the retention of valuable employees and increase organizational effectiveness (Hom et al., 2012). Turnover intent is an important phenomenon, and there is a strong need to explore the factors further that can influence this issue (Kassing, Piemonte, Goman, & Mitchell, 2012). Broadly speaking, turnover intentions can lead to the perceived ease of movement and perceived desirability of movement (March & Simon, 1958). Perceived ease of movement is related to job alternatives, while perceived desirability of movement reflects job dissatisfaction, leading to turnover intention.

Job embeddedness research has only reported that job-based embeddedness is significantly and negatively correlated with turnover intentions and actual turnover. At the same time, non-job-based embeddedness was found to not be related to either (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Allen, 2006; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). Mallol, Holtom, and Lee (2007) conducted research that demonstrated a significant relationship between both aspects of job embeddedness (e.g., job- and non-job-based) and turnover intentions. However, the relationship for non-job-based embeddedness was twice as strong as that for job-based embeddedness. In contrast, Tanova and Holtom (2008) found that both forms of embeddedness (e.g., job-based and non-job based) had nearly identical strength of correlation with voluntary turnover. Therefore, it is unclear what circumstances determine the importance of one aspect of job embeddedness over another.

Job embeddedness can be distinguished from turnover intentions in that it emphasizes all of the forces that keep an individual on the job, rather than the psychological process one goes through when quitting. For example, job embeddedness profiles with high job-based and non-job-based sacrifice profiles may value personal and professional losses if individuals were to quit more than other profiles. Therefore, conducting a person-centered approach to job

embeddedness can clarify the ambiguity in embeddedness factors. In addition, determine the likelihood that one job embeddedness profile may influence turnover intentions more so than another. In turn, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5 – There will be significant mean differences in turnover intentions across job embeddedness profiles.

Chapter 3: METHODOLOGY

Research Design Overview

This research study utilized a cross-sectional survey design and collected primary quantitative data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) with a survey instrument composed of 83 survey items organized by five research-validated scales and four demographic questions. The survey was built on the Qualtrics Experience Management (XM) TM platform, where Qualtrics was employed to recruit participants and collect their responses. In addition to recruiting participants, Qualtrics notified all participants that the survey was voluntary, that all responses would be confidential and used only for research purposes (see Appendix A for cover and consent letters). Furthermore, no identifying information was provided by Qualtrics of the participants.

This research study was reviewed by the Office of Research Protections and Integrity (ORPI) on November 18, 2020 (study number 21-0148). The ORPI determined that this study met the Exempt category as cited under guideline 45 CFR 46.104(d).

The preceding sections of this chapter discuss the Participants, Measures, Procedures, and Analysis.

Participants

For an individual to participate in this study, they had to be (a) 25 years of age or greater, (b) a full-time employee with their primary role consisting of 30 hours or more in a business week, (c) employed by their current employer for at least one year or more, and (d) work within the United States of America. Participants were asked to report their race, gender, and

employment industry. Appendix B provides a complete list of information gathered from participants during the survey.

One critical issue is that of model selection, especially selection of the number of profiles, sometimes called "extraction" of profiles (e.g., Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007). Though there is little information within the literature about sample size requirements for the methods that are being used in this research study (e.g., LPA), Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén (2007) concluded that a minimum sample size of about 500 should lead to enough accuracy in identifying a correct number of latent profiles (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007). Since this study intended to utilize latent profile analysis to determine if reliable job embeddedness profiles emerge, a minimum sample size of 500 participants was determined to meet the inclusion criteria and provide sufficient power in testing the proposed hypotheses.

Qualtrics provided 620 responses to the online survey tool in .CSV format. After reviewing the data, it was discovered that 15 responses (2.42%) failed the screening question based on age, two responses (0.32%) failed the screening question that they worked less than 30 hours per week, three responses (0.48%) failed the screening question that they were not employed in the US, 83 responses (13.39%) abandoned the survey, and 17 responses (2.74%) were removed due to questionable and low-quality response patterns. After removing the 120 mentioned cases, 500 (80.65%) total responses were used in the final analysis, which met the sample requirements as previously discussed. Results are available in Table 1.

Study participants were 53.6% (268) female, and 46.4% (232) were male with a mean age of 48 years old, with the youngest participant being 25 years old and the oldest participant being 77 years of age. Results are available in Table 2. Race breakdown of participants (see Table 2) was 61.7% (306) White, 12.4% (62) African American/Black, 0.4% (2) American Indian or

Alaska Native, 6.2% (31) Asian, 0.2% (1) Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, 17% (85) Hispanic or Latino, and 2.6% (13) were of a race not listed above. Participants worked in a variety of different industries, with the most significant number of participants working in educational services (13%), healthcare or social services (12.2%), finance, banking, or insurance services (10.6%), information technology services (10%), manufacturing services (8.8%), and retail trade services (6.6%). Further details on the frequencies of the participants' industries are found in Table 2.

Measures

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured using Pond and Geyer's (1991) six-item global job-satisfaction scale, where participants were asked to report their satisfaction with their current jobs (see Appendix B). This scale was initially developed by Quinn and Shepard (1974) and subsequently modified by Rice, Phillips, and McFarlin (1990) and Pond and Geyer (1991). Global job satisfaction has positive correlations with satisfaction and with the facets of the job itself, supervision, promotion, pay, interactions with a boss, customer contact, job freedom, learning opportunities, amount of decision-making, and satisfaction with co-workers (e.g., Pond & Geyer 1991; Rice, Markus, Moyer, & McFarlin, 1991). All six items measured an individual's general affective reaction to their job without reference to any specific facets (e.g., "In general, how well would you say that your job measures up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?"). The scale was anchored by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = not satisfied to 5 = more satisfied to capture responses.

Job Embeddedness. To measure the job embeddedness categories, Mitchell et al.'s (2001) 40-item scale was used with the specific items found in Appendix B. The first category, job-based fit, was assessed by nine items that utilized responses consisting of a 7-point Likert-

type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items are "I like the members of my workgroup" and "My co-workers are similar to me." The second category, non-job-based fit, was assessed by five items that utilized yes or no responses. Sample items were "I really love the place where I live" and "The weather where I live is suitable for me." The third category, job-based links, asked seven questions that utilized fill-in-the-blank responses. Sample items were "How long have you been in your present position?" and "How long have you worked for this company?". The fourth category, non-job-based links, was assessed by six questions with yes or no responses. Sample items were "Are you currently married?" and "If you are married, does your spouse work outside the home?". The fifth category, job-based sacrifice, was assessed by ten items consisting of a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items were "I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals" and "The perks on this job are outstanding." Lastly, the sixth category, non-job-based sacrifice, was assessed by three items consisting of a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items were "Leaving this community would be very hard" and "People respect me a lot in my community."

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment was measured by Meyer, Barak, and Vandenberghe's (1996) scale of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (see Appendix B). Affective and normative commitment was measured with six items each, while an additional six items were used for continuance commitment, totaling 18 items. For example, affective commitment contained a question that asked, "I am proud to belong to this organization." An example of one of the items for normative commitment was, "I think I would be guilty if I left my current organization now." Continuance commitment contained six items with example questions of "I would not leave this

organization because of what I would stand to lose" and "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization." Items were anchored by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree were used to capture responses.

Additionally, organizational commitment was measured by the Klein et al. (2014) Unidimensional Target neutral (KUT) commitment measure. The KUT scale is a parsimonious, target-free measure of commitment that allows organizations to better facilitate the management of commitment to whatever targets managers deem important (Klein et al., 2014). The KUT scale is a four-item scale that has example questions such as "How committed are you to your organization?" and "How dedicated are you to your organization?". The KUT scale used a 5-point agreement with formatted responses (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Social Desirability. Research that is carried out using questionnaires relies on truthful responses from respondents to draw meaningful conclusions. Socially desirable responding is generally viewed as the tendency on the part of individuals to present themselves in a favorable light, regardless of their true feelings about a topic (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The respondent may believe the information they report may "fake good" to conform to socially acceptable values, avoid criticism, or gain social approval (Huang, Liao, Chang, 1998; King & Brunner, 2000). In addition, socially desirable responses can contribute to common method bias, which is problematic because they are one of the primary sources of measurement error (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Since the job embeddedness categories and other variables used in this study were measured through the use of self-reported data, I utilized a short form (ten items) of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale developed by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) (see

Appendix B). This 10-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne scale has been found to have better psychometric properties than the original 33-item form by Crowne & Marlowe (1960). Though the original items had a true/false reply, for this study, I adopted Wang, Van Iddekinge, Zhang, & Bishoff's (2019) study using a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) where five of these items were reverse scored. Sample items included "I like to gossip at times" and "I always try to practice what I preach" (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972).

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were measured using a scale adapted from Hom and Griffeth (1991) and Jaros (1997) and modified by Stanly et al. (2013) (see Appendix B). This modified scale contained two items that assessed whether an individual is contemplating leaving their organization or intends to search for a role within another organization within the following year. The items asked were: "I often think about quitting this organization" and "I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year" (Stanley et al., 2013). Items were anchored by a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree there were used to capture responses.

Attention Check Items and Response Time. I embedded three attention check items (see Appendix B) within the survey tool. Due to my survey's self-reporting nature, survey respondents are assumed to pay adequate attention to each scale item so that their responses are meaningful and offer valid measurement of a construct (Kung, Kwok, & Brown, 2018). In addition, to ensure scale validity, many researchers recommend including attention check questions in surveys (Berinsky, Margolis, & Sances, 2014; Curran, 2016; Huang, Liu, & Bowling, 2015). I randomly embedded these items throughout the survey to identify any careless responses before conducting analyses (Schmitt & Stults, 1986; Maniaci & Rogge, 2014). For example, one of the questions asked, "If you have read this question, select neutral."

Because they are an efficient method to protect scale validity, attention checks are now widely employed and considered to be a desirable feature in survey designs across disciplines (Berinsky et al., 2014; Bowling et al., 2016; Hauser & Schwarz, 2016). For this study, zero participants were found to fail any of the attention check questions.

In addition to attention check questions, I evaluated response times across all participants. The response time approach assumes shortened response time for insufficient effort responding than for normal responding because of the absence of cognitive processing (Huang et al., 2012). Response time was measured as the total amount of time it takes for an individual to respond to a set of items. For example, an initial cut on response time may identify those who respond below some threshold under which thoughtful responses could never be produced (Curran, 2016). Out of the 639 respondents provided by Qualtrics, eight (1.29%) were removed due to questionable response times that were less than five minutes and above 45 minutes.

Procedure

A one-shot study design was used to collect data (Vanderstoep & Johnson, 2008). The survey used for this research study was built on the Qualtrics Experience Management (XM) ™ platform. Qualtrics were then employed to gather data and recruited participants by distributing the online survey built within the Qualtrics Experience Management (XM) ™ platform. To recruit participants, Qualtrics distributed an email link to individuals and notified each individual that the survey was voluntary. Qualtrics also provided an overview of the informed consent with Institutional Review Board (IRB) contact information. Participants were required to read and agree to the informed consent. In addition, participants were encouraged to print out the consent form (see Appendix A).

Once a participant provided consent, all participants were required to answer the screening questions first and automatically withdraw from the survey if they did not meet the screening criterion (see Appendix B). For example, any participant who answered that their age was less than 18 years were exited from the survey. Participants were also instructed that they had the ability to drop from the survey at any time. To aid in the reliability of this study, all participants received the same survey tool. Reliability relates to the researcher's findings' evidence and integrity (Noble & Smith, 2015). Lastly, participants were notified that the collected responses would be used for research purposes contained and used within this study only. No personal or identifiable information was captured from the data sample. In addition, the individual scales were presented in random order to survey participants with the demographic questions presenting last. Qualtrics distributed the online survey in the fourth quarter of 2020, while responses were gathered in the first six weeks of the first quarter of 2021. Qualtrics then provided the raw data set to me in an Excel format.

Statistical Analysis

The raw dataset was provided by Qualtrics in an Excel format and imported into SPSS, using IBM SPSS Statistics version 26. The data was cleansed, formatted, and evaluated for missing data and errors. In addition, specific scales were reverse scored and standardized as appropriate. Specifically, I reverse-coded items for Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment, Continuance Commitment, and Social Desirability. Additionally, all items for job- and non-job-based links needed to be standardized due to the mixture of questions and the nature of how participants responded to questions (e.g., yes or no and numerical responses).

Statistical analysis for hypotheses testing was executed in three phases: (1) confirmatory factor analysis, (2) latent profile analysis, and (3) analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Phase one

conducted a confirmatory analysis (CFA) to determine if a six-factor model provided the best fit model structure and degree of discriminant validity across all job embeddedness items to test hypothesis one. CFAs were conducted for job embeddedness on a one-factor, two-factor, three-factor models, and six-factor model. Multiple goodness-of-fit indices were evaluated to determine the best model fit.

In addition to the fit indices, and in order to determine the best fit model overall from the Maximum-Likelihood CFA, I interpreted the relative fit of nested models; using a chi-square difference statistic. Among the most versatile and commonly-used strategies for hypothesis-testing for structural equation modeling is the likelihood-ratio test, also known as the difference chi-square test with which researchers contrast the goodness-of-fit chi-square value of a less restrictive, baseline model with the goodness-of-fit chi-square value of a more restrictive, nested comparison model (Bollen, 1989). To compute a $\chi 2$ difference test, the difference of the $\chi 2$ values of models is taken as well as the difference of the degrees of freedom.

In phase two, to test hypothesis two and identify profiles within the sample data, I conducted a latent profile analysis using the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation in Mplus Version 7 (Muthén & Muthén 2015). ML estimation provides the basis for almost all structural equation model fitting and answers the question of which parameters are the best for the model. LPA uses latent categorical variables to indicate profile membership and identify groups of individuals who share similar patterns of scores on the job embeddedness categories. Since LPA is model-based, it provides a profile membership variable which may be used in other analyses (e.g., ANOVA) to determine if the profiles of job embeddedness are associated with different levels of a dependent variable like job satisfaction or turnover intentions (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2018). Finally, LPA allowed for the direct inclusion of covariates (or predictors)

in the models, helping to limit Type 1 errors by combining analyses (e.g., the profiles and all of the relationships are estimated in a single step) (Meyer & Morin, 2016).

A significant step for this study in conducting an LPA involved detecting and deciding on the correct number of profiles. When multiple profile models emerge, comparing models with different numbers of profiles requires evaluating evidence that the number of profiles is valid. Therefore, it was vital to consider the substantive meaning and theoretical conformity of the profiles to aid in determining the optimal number of job embeddedness profiles (Marsh et al., 2009; Muthén, 2003), the statistical adequacy of the solution, and a variety of statistical indicators (Howard et al., 2016). As in any model testing analysis, theoretical support was applied for the final model retained. Furthermore, I evaluated each latent profile to ensure that each profile consisted of at least 5% of this study's total participants (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2017).

Additionally, I tested the differences in the mean levels of each form of job embeddedness within each profile. Specifically, analyses of variance (ANOVAs) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 26 were conducted using profile membership as the independent variable and the CFA's job embeddedness factors as the dependent variables. The evaluation was performed to ensure that each profile was differentiated from another.

Lastly, to test hypotheses three, four, and five, an evaluation was conducted to determine whether the mean levels between job embeddedness profiles and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intent were significantly different. Specifically, I used the job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable and organizational commitment and sub-scales, job satisfaction, and turnover intention as the dependent variable.

CHAPTER 4: Results

Descriptive Statistics

Means, standard deviations, coefficient alpha reliability estimates, and intercorrelations for all study variables are presented in Table 3. All scales demonstrated expected levels of reliability. Here it should be noted that reliability estimates for three of the six Job Embeddedness subscales were relatively low. Specifically, coefficient alpha estimates for the job-based links, non-job-based links, and the non-job-based sacrifice subscales were .6. .5, and .6 respectively. While these estimates are somewhat below typically recommended levels (e.g., Bonnett & Wright, 2015), the nature of the scales along with subsequent factor analytic results (presented below) suggest that it is appropriate to consider these as usable measures. Specifically, items on these scales tapped relatively diverse aspects of the job and community components (e.g., how many family members live nearby, etc.), and thus high levels of internal consistency are not expected. Nonetheless, factor analyses indicate that these items do tend to cluster as expected.

Examination of Potential Common Method Bias

Given that all the data in the present study were obtained via a single survey design (e.g., same-source, self-report, cross-sectional data), it is important to address the possibility of common method bias (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2008). It is important to note that the literature on common method bias tends to indicate that while common methods may introduce a degree of bias, it is not sufficient to invalidate the results (Doty & Glick; Spector, 1987; Spector, 2006), and there are other potential problems with distinct source research (Kammeyer-Mueller, Steel, & Rubinstein, 2010). Nevertheless, before testing the proposed hypotheses, I examined the

extent to which a single method factor fits the study data. Specifically, I tested a single factor model whereby each of the 13 assessed variables - the six Job Embeddedness scales, two organizational commitment scales (one with three organizational commitment subscales), job satisfaction, and turnover intentions as well as Socially Desirable Responding (SDR) - loaded onto a single latent factor. This factor analysis was performed using an application of SPSS factor analysis with a maximum likelihood extraction and constraining the results to a single factor. Results indicated a single factor accounted for less than 43% of the common variance across the variables and did not provide a high level of fit with the data ($\chi 2 = 290.95$, $df = 54$, $p < .001$). These results, along with the additional CFA results described below, suggest that a single common method factor does not overwhelmingly influence the data.

Hypothesis 1 Tests and Results for CFA

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted that a six-factor model would provide the best representation of the job embeddedness measure. To test hypothesis 1, I compared the relative fit of 4 alternative models: (1) a one-factor model in which all job embeddedness items loaded on a single factor; (2) a two-factor model (job-based vs. non-job-based factors); (3) a three-factor model (fit, links, and sacrifice factors); and the hypothesized 6-factor model in which items loaded onto the six categories of job embeddedness. All analyses were conducted in R with a CFA application of the Lavaan package (Rosseel, 2012). For each model, I examined commonly used indices of fit, including the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), Normed-Fit Index (NFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Finally, I also performed Chi-square difference tests for nested model comparison to determine the best fit model.

CFA results are summarized in Table 4. As hypothesized, the six-factor model provided the best fit to the data ($\chi 2 = 2733.83$, df. = 775; CFI = 0.809; TLI = 0.794; RMSEA = .074; SRMR = .706). In addition to the evaluation of the model fit indices, I examined the Chi-square differences test in determining the best fit model. Results from the Chi-square differences test for the nested models can be found in Table 4. Because the difference in goodness-of-fit Chi-square values for two-nested models is distributed as a Chi-square value, researchers can subtract the Chi-square value of the baseline model from the Chi-square value of the nested comparison model and use the resulting difference in Chi-square values (with accompanying difference in degrees of freedom) to test the hypothesis that the constraints imposed on the baseline model for significant worse model fit (Bollen, 1989). In summary, the nested Chi-square difference from a six-factor model worsened when compared to a three-factor model and further worsened compared to a two- and one-factor model. Thus, based on the fit indices and the nested Chi-square differences test evaluations, a six-factor model of job embeddedness provided the best fit to the original scale's data instead of a one-, two-, and three-factor model, which provides support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 Tests and Results for LPA

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 predicted that distinct profiles of job embeddedness would emerge. To test hypothesis 2, I conducted a latent profile analysis (LPA) and used the decision criteria outlined by Nylund, Asparouhov, and Muthén (2007). An LPA starts by specifying a two-profile solution, increasing the number of profiles extracted until model fit no longer improves (Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén 2007). Specifically, I evaluated the differences in the performance of information criterion indices of multiple profile models using the sample-adjusted Bayesian information criterion (SABIC) (Sclove, 1987) and the Bootstrapped likelihood

ratio test (BLRT) (McLachlan & Peel, 2000). The SABIC is a log-likelihood estimate that identifies the model with the best fit and fewest parameters from among a set of non-hierarchical models (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2017). The BLRT uses bootstrap samples to estimate the log-likelihood difference test statistic distribution and empirically estimates the difference distribution instead of assuming the difference distribution follows a known distribution (e.g., the chi-square distribution) (Nylund, Asparouhov & Muthén, 2007). These information criterion indices were used to compare several plausible models where the value closest to zero indicated the best fitting model (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2017). Additional criteria specified by Nylund, Asparouhov, and Muthén (2007) state that the number of cases in each profile and the posterior probabilities should be examined. As such, for a profile to be meaningful, it should contain no less than 25 individuals. In evaluating posterior probabilities, profiles with the highest values (greater than 0.70) indicated that an individual belongs to their assigned profile and no other profile. Further, the pattern of results for each profile should make sense theoretically (Lubke & Muthén, 2005). Thus, I examined each profile means of job embeddedness factors to ensure that there was a distinct pattern between them.

Results of the LPA are presented in Table 5. Additionally, results for the posterior probabilities are presented in Table 6, and the profile memberships for the profile models are presented in Table 7. While results suggested that a four-profile solution provided the best fit to the data, a three-profile solution was chosen. Specifically, overriding the significance tests, the four-profile latent solution yielded a profile that did not appear to be theoretically different from the other profiles. In other words, it was merely a variation of an already existing group (Hirschi, 2011). A general challenge for research applying an LPA is to show that the latent profiles contribute to better understanding the constructs and tell us something that we did not

know before (Spurk et al., 2020). One aspect that should be considered is how well an additional profile can be discriminated from another that has already been retained (Vermunt & Magidson, 2002; Berlin et al., 2014).

In addition, the four-profile solution contained a profile with 28 individuals, just over the threshold for profile membership with just slightly more than 5% of the respondents (5.6%) (Stanley, Kellermanns, & Zellweger, 2017). Profiles with a small n may not be theoretically meaningful and may create instability in the profile solution (Dahling, Gabriel, & MacGowan, 2017). Therefore, based on the evaluation mentioned above, the three-profile solution was retained as the most interpretable and meaningful. In addition, the three-profile solution presented a reasonably large portion of the sample which enhances generalizability and replicability, although fit statistics would slightly prefer a four-profile solution (Spurk et al., 2020). Thus, results support hypothesis 2 and indicate that 3 distinct profiles provide a meaningful representation of the data.

The overall sample means used to substantively interpret each profile are available in Table 8, and illustrated in Figure 2. Subsequent testing of chi-square test of independence tests revealed that there is significant association between gender by profile ($\chi 2$ (36) = 58.75, p = .01), industry by profile ($\chi 2$ (2) = 7.91, p = .02), yet no significance between race by profile ($\chi 2$ (12) = 18.89, p = .09), and age by profile ($\chi 2$ (104) = 112.28, p = .273). These results for Chi-square tests of independence are available in Tables 9 though 12, while bar charts can be found in Appendices D through G.

Profile one (n = 184) was composed of 36.8% of the total sample. Further analysis revealed that 57.6% were female (106) and 42.4% male (78). This profile was referred to as "Placeholder" since it represented individuals with relatively medium or moderate levels of the

six job embeddedness factors. The top five industries for the moderately embedded profile were Healthcare or Social Assistance Services (14.1%), Educational Services (12%), Retail Trade Services (9.2%), Finance, Banking, or Insurance Services (9.2%), and Manufacturing Services (8.7%).

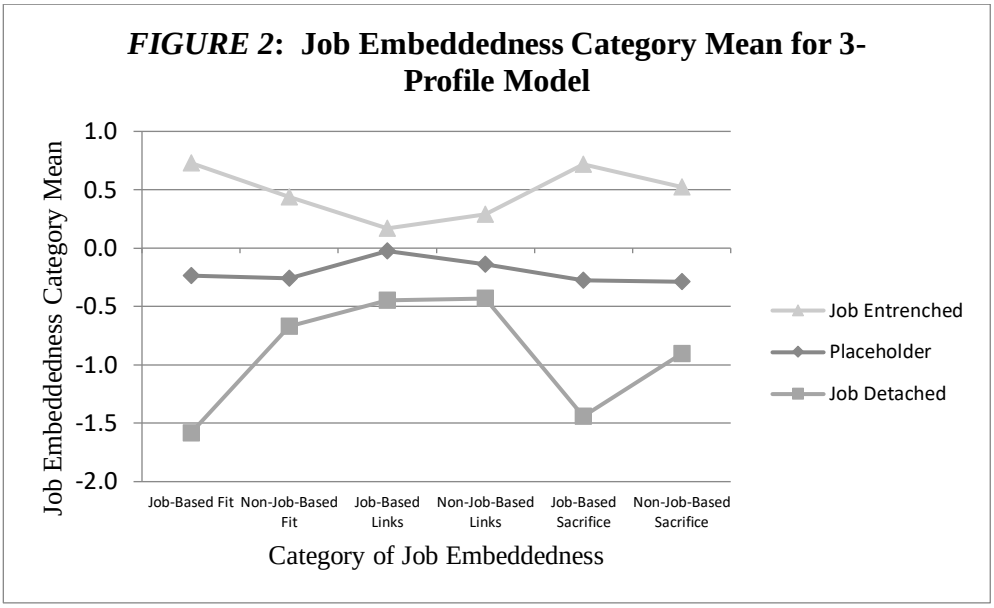
In contrast, Profile two (n = 84) consisted of 16.8% of the total sample in the database. Further analysis revealed that 67.9% were female (57) and 32.1% male (27). This profile was referred to as "Job Detached" because it exhibited the lowest levels of job-based fit, job-based sacrifice, and non-job-based sacrifice. Additionally, the Job Detached profile had relatively low levels of non-job-based fit, job- and non-job-based links. The top five industries for the Job Detached profile were Retail Trade Services (14.3%), Educational Services (14.3%), Finance, Banking, or Insurance Services (13.1%), Healthcare or Social Assistance Services (11.9%), and Accommodation or Food Services (8.3%). Lastly, Profile three (n = 232) consisted of 46.4% of the total sample and clearly the sample's most prominent profile. Further analysis revealed that 50.4% were female (117) and 49.6% male (115). This profile, referred to as "Job Entrenched", exhibited the highest levels of all six job embeddedness factors. The top five industries of the Job Entrenched profile were Educational Services (14.2%), Information Technology Services (13.8%), Finance, Banking, or Insurance Services (10.8%), Healthcare or Social Assistance Services (10.8%), Manufacturing Services (8.6%), Construction Services (6.9%).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the effect of job embeddedness factors among the three profiles. However, during this analysis, it was determined that Socially Desirable Responding (SDR) has some statistical significance with job embeddedness factors in regards to profile. Therefore, subsequent analysis was performed conducting an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) where each factor of job embeddedness as the dependent variable was

evaluated for each profile as the categorical variable and SDR as the covariate. Results from the ANCOVA analyses can be found in Table 13. All significant values are reported at $p < .05$. Conclusion of the results controlling for SDR found there was a statistical significance between profiles with regards to job-based fit ($F(2, 494) = 507.58$, $p = .001$) and non-job-based fit ($F(2, 494) = 52.41$, $p = .001$). Similarly, there was a statistical significance between profile with regards to job-based links ($F(2, 494) = 10.73$, $p = .001$) and non-job-based links ($F(2, 494) = 19.01$, $p = .001$). Lastly, statistical significance was found when comparing profiles with regards to job-based sacrifice ($F(2, 494) = 360.53$, $p = .001$) and non-job-based sacrifice ($F(2, 494) = 94.25$, $p = .001$).

While ANCOVA results revealed significant differences across profiles when controlling for SDR, post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed some significant differences between job embeddedness profiles. Specifically, job-based fit was significantly higher for the Job Entrenched profile ($M = .73$) compared to the Job Detached ($M = -1.58$, $p < .05$) and the Placeholder ($M = -.24$, $p < .05$) profiles. In contrast, non-job-based fit significantly lower in the Job Detached ($M = -.67$) profile compared to the Placeholder profile ($M = -.26$, $p < .05$) and the Job Entrenched profile ($M = .44$, $p < .05$). Job-based links were significantly lower in the Job Detached profile ($M = -.45$) compared to the Placeholder profile ($M = -.03$, $p < .05$) and the Job Entrenched profile ($M = .17$, $p < .05$). Similarly, non-job-based links were significantly higher in the Job Entrenched profile ($M = .29$) compared to the Placeholder ($M = -.14$, $p < .05$) and Job Detached profile ($M = -.43$, $p < .05$). However, job-based-sacrifice was significantly higher for the Job Entrenched profile ($M = .72$) than the Placeholder profile ($M = -.28$, $p < .05$) and the Job Detached profile ($M = -1.44$, $p < .05$) Lastly, non-job-based sacrifice was significantly lower in

the Job Detached profile (M =-.90) than the Placeholder profile (M = -.29, p < .05) and the Job Entrenched profile (M = .52, p < .05).



4.4 Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 Tests and Results for ANCOVA

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 predicted there would be significant mean differences in levels of organizational commitment across job embeddedness profiles. The overall sample means used to substantively interpret each profile are available in Table 14, and response means are illustrated in Figure 3. Additionally, results of the ANCOVA are available in Table 15. In using the job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable and SDR as the covariate, each organizational commitment sub-scale was tested as the dependent variable. Results from ANCOVA analysis showed that affective commitment was statistically significant across the job embeddedness profiles (F(2, 494) = 494.07, p = .001). Post-hoc comparisons showed that the Job Entrenched profile (M = 0.75) had significantly higher affective commitment levels than the Placeholder profile (M = -0.33, p < .05) and the Job Detached profile (M = -1.51, p < .05). Statistical significance was found from ANCOVA results showing that normative commitment was significant across all job embeddedness profiles (F(2, 494) = 109.85,

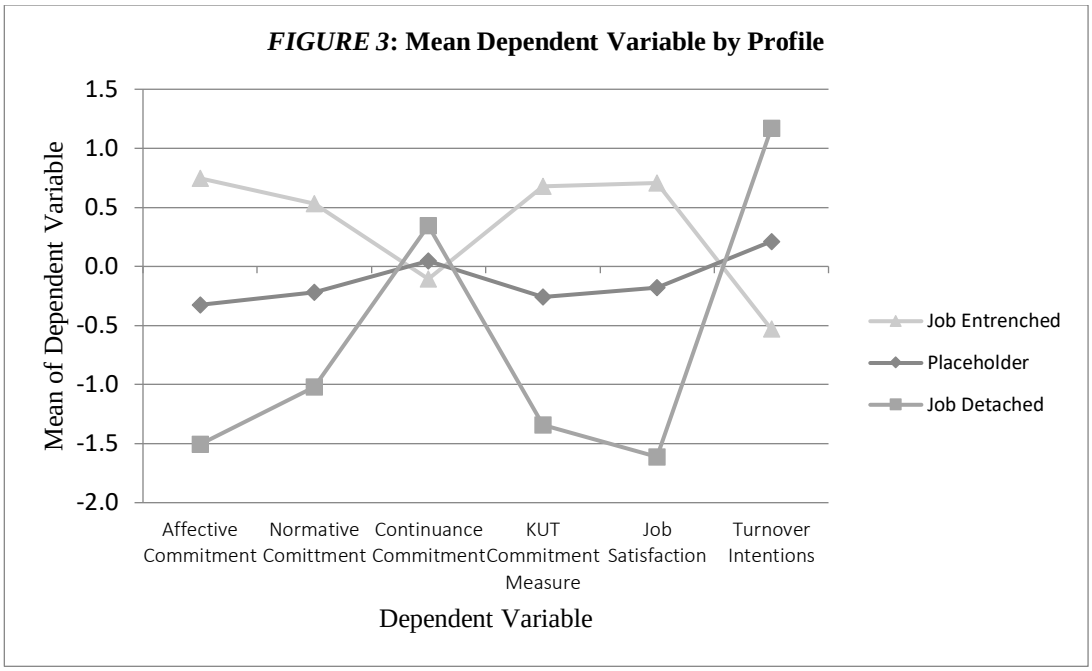
p = .001). Post-hoc comparisons showed that the Job Entrenched profile (M = 0.53) had significantly higher normative commitment levels than the Job Detached profile (M = -1.02, p < .05) and the Placeholder profile (M = -0.22, p < .05). Lastly, statistical significance was found from ANCOVA results showing that continuance commitment was significant across all job embeddedness profiles (F(2, 494) = 5.80, p = .003). Post-hoc comparisons showed that the Placeholder profile (M = -0.11) had higher continuance commitment levels than the Job Detached profile (M = 0.04, p < .10) and the Job Entrenched profile (M = 5.18, p < .05).

In testing organizational commitment further, the Klein et al. (2014) Unidimensional Target neutral (KUT) commitment measure (F(2, 494) = 280.94, p = .001) was shown to be statistically significant across all profiles. The overall sample mean used to substantively interpret each profile are available in Table 14, and response mean for KUT commitment are illustrated in Figure 3. Additionally, results of the ANCOVA are available in Table 15. Furthermore, the Job Entrenched profile (M = 0.68) had significantly higher levels of organizational commitment than the Placeholder profile (M = -0.26, p < .05) and the Job Detached profile (M = -1.34, p < .05) using the KUT commitment measure. Thus, results support hypothesis 3 that significant mean differences in levels of organizational commitment across job embeddedness profiles would be observed.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 predicted there would be significant mean differences in levels of job satisfaction across job embeddedness profiles. The overall sample means used to substantively interpret each profile are available in Table 14, and response means are illustrated in Figure 3. Additionally, results of the ANCOVA are available in Table 15, and response means are illustrated in Figure 3. Reviewing the ANCOVA results using job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable and overall job satisfaction as the dependent

variable indicated that there were significant differences between the profiles with regards to job satisfaction ($F(2, 494) = 508.28$, $p = .001$). Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the Job Entrenched profile ($M = 0.71$) had significantly higher job satisfaction levels than the Placeholder profile ($M = -0.18$, $p < .05$)and the Job Detached profile ($M = -1.61$, $p < .05$). Thus, results support hypothesis 4 that significant mean differences in levels of job satisfaction across job embeddedness profiles would be observed.

Hypothesis 5. Hypothesis 5 predicted there would be significant mean differences in levels of turnover intentions across job embeddedness profiles. The overall sample means used to substantively interpret each profile are available in Table 14, and response means are illustrated in Figure 3. Additionally, results of the ANCOVA are presented in Table 15. Reviewing the ANCOVA results using job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable, turnover intentions as the dependent variable, and SDR as the covariate, indicated that there are significant differences between the profiles with regards to turnover intentions ($F(2, 494) = 507.58$, $p = .001$). Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the Job Entrenched profile ($M = -0.53$) had significantly lower levels of turnover intentions than the Placeholder profile ($M = 0.21$, $p < .05$) and the Job Detached profile ($M = 1.71$, $p < .05$). Thus, results support hypothesis 5 that significant mean differences in levels of turnover intentions across job embeddedness profiles would be observed.



In summary of this study's results, full support was found for Hypothesis 1, where a six-factor model of job embeddedness was evaluated to provide the best fit model. In addition, full support was found for Hypotheses 2, where distinct profiles of job embeddedness were found in the data. Lastly, full support was found for Hypothesis 3 through 5, where significant mean differences in levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions varied across all job embeddedness profiles. A summary of the findings for all hypotheses is provided in Appendix H.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

General Discussion

In this research study, the objective was to examine the interactive effects of complex combinations between the job embeddedness aspects and their attachment ties by taking a person-centered approach. Management researchers have been applying variable-centered approaches, which focus mainly on the effects of the overall level of job embeddedness, rather than the specific weight of each aspect of job embeddedness and their attachment tie (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001; Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Yao et al., 2004; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). Although there is nothing inherently wrong with variable-centered approaches, such an approach assumes that variables operate and affect outcomes separately and across individuals (Woo et al., 2018). Moreover, variable-centered approaches assume that the data are homogeneous, whereas person-centered approaches capture heterogeneity in responses by placing individuals into specific cohesive groups or subpopulations (Wang & Hanges, 2011).

In addition, much of the subsequent research has treated the two aspects of job embeddedness (e.g., job-based and non-job-based) synonymously despite their differences (Lee, Burch, Mitchell, 2014). In response, this research study examined the distinct foci that an attachment tie (e.g., links, fit, and sacrifice) has on each aspect of job embeddedness to distinguish between these empirically. Utilizing data from an online survey of 500 cases allowed a subjective view of how various respondents weigh job embeddedness facets. The one-shot online survey design contained 76 artifacts and seven questions used for screening and demographics. In doing so, this study contributes that job embeddedness factors did not operate in a simple linear fashion and evaluated them further against attitudinal variables.

By conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), this research study found that a six-factor model best represents the aspects of job embeddedness and their attachment ties. This finding is supported by previous research that reflects the original six-factor conceptualization proposed by Mitchell et al. (2001). Levels of goodness-of-fit were also conclusive that the Job Embeddedness model presented by Mitchell et al. (2001) is a construct consisting of multiple factors instead of a unidimensional model. Therefore, I adopted the Mitchell et al. (2001) composite measure for the reason that this scale encompasses and measures all three aspects of job embeddedness and their attachment ties (e.g., job-based fit, non-job-based fit, etc.), assuming complete coverage of the job embeddedness construct (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). As I mentioned earlier, scales such as the global job embeddedness scale (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007) not only make assumptions that an individual's non-job-based experiences are incorporated in their level of job-based experiences but do not measure each aspect of job embeddedness. In addition, this study's factor model solution supports Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth's (2012) contention that treating the three attachment ties of non-job-based embeddedness as one factor undermines its predictive validity (Robinson et al., 2014). Furthermore, since some job embeddedness aspects and their attachment ties can influence each other, to treat them all as one rather than six individual scales undermine the construct's theoretical basis.

Implications for Theory

This study has implications for job embeddedness theory in several ways. The first implication is that this research study applied a latent profile analysis to the job embeddedness construct. Applying an LPA mindset to the job embeddedness construct allowed more emphasis on focusing on individuals rather than variables compared to many other analytical mindsets (Muthén & Muthén, 2000). Furthermore, this study complements the dominant variable-

centered analytical mindset inherent in job embeddedness literature by taking a person-centered approach to identify individuals who share work and community experiences (Woo & Allen, 2014). By doing so, this research study also addresses management research calls to examine job embeddedness for the potential of profiles (e.g., Lee et al., 2004; Yao et al., 2004; Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Specifically, prior researchers have called for investigative patterns in responses and associations across the six categories of job embeddedness and apply a latent profile analysis for comprehensive profiles (e.g., Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014, Lee et al., 2004).

A second implication was by testing for job embeddedness profiles allowed an opportunity to examine how the six factors of job embeddedness (e.g., job-based fit, non-job-based Fit, etc.) operate together, which prior research continues to study separately (e.g., Lee et al., 2004). Furthermore, this research study enhances the foundation of how job embeddedness factors interact more clearly and provides a vivid picture of the job embeddedness construct. Thus, this research study responds to turnover researchers calling for additional research on the job embeddedness factors and discovering more discriminate properties that eliminate any overlap and avoid further confusion (e.g., Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). While researchers continue to find different relationships across job embeddedness factors and samples, this has left much to study in clarifying the job embeddedness construct (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014).

A latent profile analysis (LPA) found that three distinct job embeddedness profiles emerged in examining patterns in response indicators within the data. These profiles displayed unique patterns of job-based and non-job-based experiences that relate to staying on the job. Profile 3, or 'Job Entrenched,' represented individuals with the highest mean levels of job

embeddedness factors. Findings support prior research that the better the fit, the higher the likelihood that an individual will feel professionally and personally tied to the organization (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). High fit also suggests that these individuals have similar values and attitudes as colleagues and are likely to cooperate with them more readily (Kwantes, Arbour, & Boglarsky, 2007).

Similarly, high levels job-based links support that this profile is more likely to be involved in and tied to projects and co-workers and apply their skills and sacrifice valued things if they quit (Lee et al., 2004). Prior research on high levels of job-based sacrifice suggests that the Job Entrenched profile is likely to lessen the chance for an individual to leave the organization as they strongly interpret the organizational system as fair and just regarding formal processes, reward system, and health benefits (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001). In line with this, as seen with high levels of job-based sacrifice, this study can assume that the Job Entrenched profile recognizes that they will sacrifice or lose many benefits resulting from leaving the organization.

For the Job Entrenched profile, high non-job-based embeddedness is just as crucial for these individuals to remain in the organization and maintain high-quality performance in the workplace. Previous research has found that individuals with high non-job-based fit suggest that individuals will experience greater physical well-being, better mental health, and stronger positive mood (Gareis and Barnett, 2008; Muhajarine and Janzen, 2006; Roosa et al., 2009, Ng & Feldman, 2013). In addition, individuals who are highly embedded in their communities may have more time and energy to participate in additional training and career development programs at work (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Under these circumstances, the Job Entrenched profile is more likely to have effective performance outcomes.

The Job Entrenched profile also had the highest organizational commitment levels and job satisfaction and lowest mean levels for turnover intentions. More specifically, Job Entrenched individuals had the highest mean levels of affective and normative commitment yet lowest overall mean levels of continuance commitment. Commitment researchers have described a similar mindset known as "Affective Commitment (AC) dominant," which embodies high affective but low continuance commitments (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Wasti, 2005, Stanley et al., 2013). These individuals may devote more time and effort pursuing (intrinsically valued) performance goals because they share the organization's values and goals (Cable & Edwards, 2004). By contrast, Job Entrenched individuals may also face weak normative pressures to stay and have minimal turnover costs. Lastly, since Job Entrenched individuals may have formal or informal connections with their co-workers and friends in the organization, they presented with the lowest levels of turnover intentions and are motivated to display positive performance outcomes, as seen with high levels of job satisfaction.

Profile one, or Placeholders, were characterized by individuals that hold moderate mean levels of each job embeddedness factor. Compared to Job Entrenched individuals, Placeholders have a moderate cost to leave their jobs and are embedded within their organizations just enough to maintain the status quo. Prior job embeddedness literature has done very little research not only on non-job-based embeddedness but explained very little on moderate factor levels of job embeddedness. Therefore, it can be assumed that as a Placeholder, these individuals may only be holding their position within the organization until something "better" comes along. Though these individuals may stay with their organizations for a long time, eventually, their time will come to an end sooner rather than later. It is also a possibility that Placeholders may be seen as

individuals that are loyal to their paycheck, possibly somewhat disengaged, and are low performers with few chances of leaving voluntarily (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012).

The Placeholder profile also holds moderate levels of affective, normative, and relatively high levels of continuance commitment (over Job Entrenched individuals). This profile may represent a somewhat less intrinsically motivated version of the Not Committed (NC) profile described in commitment profile research (Stanley et al., 2013). Compared to the Job Entrenched profile, the Placeholder profile also had lower job satisfaction levels and higher levels or a moderate probability of turnover intentions. It is quite possible that for extrinsic reasons, Placeholders want to stay indefinitely in an attempt to avoid giving up good organizational benefits. They may also fulfill requirements strictly detailed in job descriptions (avoiding discretionary acts benefiting firms) and perform "just enough not to get fired" (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012) as explained by moderate levels of job satisfaction.

Profile 2, or Job Detached, had the lowest mean levels of each job embeddedness factor. It is important to note that these results do not equivalate to an individual in this profile not embedded in their organizations but just hold the lowest job embeddedness factors. For example, characterized by the lowest mean levels of job-based fit, the Job Detached profile exhibited poor fit with their organization. In comparison, low levels of non-job-based fit could explain that these individuals do not feel they have a strong perception of compatibility with their organization. Being attached to the organization may not be a vital feature in their life-space. The lowest mean levels of job-based sacrifice were also one of the lowest attachment ties for this profile. Since the concept of job-based sacrifice represents the perceived cost of material or psychological benefits that are forfeited by leaving the organization, these individuals may perceive that they would not induce high personal losses such as losing contact with work friends

or job-based perks. It might be safe to say that the Job Detached profile is best represented by individuals that are simply unhappy with their jobs.

The Job Detached profile holds the lowest levels for all factors of organizational commitment. While the job embeddedness scale includes community-related factors not typically included in continuance commitment like living in a safe neighborhood, homeownership, significant others employment status, hobbies, weather, and climate, continuance commitment is based on an individual's recognition of the costs associated with leaving an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Similar to commitment profile research, a Continuance Dominant profile displayed low levels of affective and normative commitment. Individuals in the Job Detached profile (just as with the Continuance Dominant profile) may rationalize that they choose to stay in order to retain highly valued rewards such as exciting projects, salary, and friendships with the organization but, on the other hand, may experience a lack of available opportunities (Stanley et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the Job Detached profile holds the lowest levels of job satisfaction and highest levels of turnover intentions. Being less embedded in an organization does not necessarily push an individual to leave a job as dis-satisfaction does. On the other hand, prior research has suggested that though individuals may have low levels of job embeddedness, they could be satisfied just enough with a job (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001). However, this finding was not evident by the lowest levels of job satisfaction. What low levels of job embeddedness may do is make an individual susceptible to dissatisfaction, and if that occurs, it becomes easier for the individual to leave the organization (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). All told, there may be legal, alternative, or behavioral reasons and/or normative forces that may be deterring these

individuals from wanting to quit or foster the belief that “they have no choice but to stay” (Klein et al., 2012).

Implications for Practice

This research study provides its share of managerial implications. Given that Placeholders and the Job Detached profiles had the lowest levels of non-job-based embeddedness, the first implication is that managers may want to consider looking into implementing workplace arrangements that increase the ability for individuals to develop their life out of work. This approach could be carried out by allowing flexible work arrangements that better enable individuals to participate in community activities allowing individuals to increase their levels of non-job-based embeddedness (Treuren & Fein, 2018). Since one job embeddedness factor can influence and possibly increase another, these increases in non-job-based embeddedness might lead to increases in an individual’s ability and willingness to become more socially active in the workplace, therefore likely to experience a subsequent profile. Additionally, increasing employee participation in community-related activities offers the employee a broadening of their social network and community involvement, potentially leading to increased social support. Furthermore, organizations can be proactive about job embeddedness such as links can be increased through teams and long-term projects; sacrifice can be increased by connecting job and organizational rewards to longevity; and fit can be increased by matching employees’ knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes with a job’s requirements (Felps et al., 2009). Equally important, managers can increase non-job-based embeddedness by providing people with information about the community surrounding their workplace and by providing social support for local activities and events (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee, 2001).

Organizational human resource practices may want to increase employee job embeddedness, influencing managers to take steps to foster employee job embeddedness in and beyond the workplace. For example, to cultivate job-based embeddedness, long-term career development plans might be adopted by an organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). To influence other job-based factors in an attempt to increase an individual's non-job-based factors, organizations can attempt to provide benefits that have a long-term commitment, such as individual health club membership that requires annual membership dues or season tickets to sporting events (Reitz & Anderson, 2011).

While this research study has several implications for organizations and managers, it should be noted that organizations should not treat Job Entrenched or Placeholder individuals differently than Job Detached individuals, especially since higher job embeddedness levels can possibly create positive situations (such as low turnover). Findings from this research study support that using job embeddedness as a strategy to increase retention means an analysis of the community and organization should be accomplished to lay the foundation to design effective retention strategies (Reitz, 2014). Therefore, an implication could be that organizations can routinely survey for job- and non-job-based embeddedness. Based on these survey findings, an organization's human resources team could better tailor retention packages such as providing creative benefit alternatives or cafeteria plans, tailoring benefits to meet individual needs and enhance work-life balance.

Finally, it is recommended that organizations attempt to avoid creating the situation where individuals feel embedded or stuck in their job when they already experience a lack of organizational trust, as seen with Placeholders and Job Detached individuals holding low levels of affective and normative commitment. However, if this situation is unavoidable, organizations

should attempt to help individuals recognize that they are not as embedded or stuck in their job as they might believe or indicate to the employees the positive aspects of remaining in the organization (such as those with longer tenure receive more training or higher pay raises) (Marasi, Cox, & Bennett, 2016). Therefore, taking steps to create a sense of support for employees can lead to increased organizational commitment, which may ultimately increase an individuals' intent to stay with the organization (Madden et al., 2015).

Limitations and Future Research

Notwithstanding the benefits to job embeddedness literature from this research study, there are a number of limitations. Researchers have argued that the items included in Mitchell et al.'s (2001) original 40-item job embeddedness instrument propose that a range of attitudes, opinions, and states can influence an individual when assessing their own embeddedness (e.g., Crossley et al., 2007, Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth, 2012). Therefore, one limitation is the reliance on the study's questionnaire and convenience samples. In addition, the use of the self-report item of intent to search for a position with another employer within the next year and planning to work at the same organization for the next year relied on the participant's honesty regarding their future employment intentions (Reitz & Smith, 2019). Subsequent research could look to reduce any error by obtaining actual turnover data or work-life data from multiple sources, such as managers or co-workers, or at different points in time.

Mitchell et al. (2001) characterized links as formal or informal connections between a person and institutions or other people. This suggests that a number of strands connect an individual and their family in a social, psychological, and financial web that includes work and non-work friends, groups, and the environment in which they live in. Thus, the higher the profile experienced, the more the individual is bound to the job and organization. However, the

argument exists that the scales that measure links do not recognize that certain links may be more important than others and that these differences may be population-specific (e.g., Mitchell et al., 2001). Moreover, these scales take into consideration the quantity of links, not the quality. Future studies should continue to refine the conceptualization of job and non-job-based links by exploring their affective strengths (Zhang, Fried, & Griffeth., 2012).

A third limitation is that may there may be some subjectivity in the decision process in selecting the appropriate number of profiles to retain in the LPA. Although the four-profile model did present with indices significantly better than the three-class solution, an argument could be made that the more parsimonious model should be selected. Simultaneously, though I used theory in conjunction with guidelines and examples available in the current literature (e.g., Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007), future research should continue to validate and observe these profiles across a variety of samples (Woo & Allen, 2014).

Higher levels of job-based embeddedness have been found to have positive effects on the work–family interface because highly embedded employees could perform their jobs more efficiently (Lee et al., 2004). In this case, Job Entrenched individuals might experience fewer conflicts between work and family demands. In contrast, it is possible to argue that the Job Entrenched profile might actually have adverse effects on the work–family interface because highly embedded employees have greater work demands (Ng & Feldman, 2010). This perspective suggests that the higher the job embeddedness profile experienced, the more likely they are to have greater demands put upon them in terms of responsibilities to their jobs, colleagues, and communities. Another argument for the Job Entrenched profile is that these individuals may remain with the organization and/or community due to calculative or moral forces (Maertz & Campion, 2004). Prior research has shown that individuals with a high level of

job embeddedness will stay in an organization even in a not very satisfactory working environment (e.g., Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman, 2011). Future research should identify if such negative motivators exist between profiles and how they influence the job embeddedness profile.

While I have limited discussion around gender, nor did I hypothesize for any gender differences, it was noted that a gender difference existed in the Placeholder profile where more females dominated the profile. Thus, further research could include evaluating gender differences within job embeddedness profile research. In addition, I make several comparisons of job embeddedness profile those profiles found in commitment profile research (e.g., Wasti, 2005; Meyer, Stanley, Parfyonova, 2012; Stanley et al., 2013). Further research is needed to validate these assumptions further.

Lastly, an argument could be made that turnover intentions were used as opposed to actual turnover. Actual turnover constructs generally require costly longitudinal designs to fully assess (Cohen, Blake, & Goodman, 2016). Though turnover intentions are commonly used in literature, organizations' actual turnover numbers require access to sensitive, personal records. These records are often not available to researchers. In the time-span allotted in this research study, a number of variables can come into play, possibly affecting the initial intention. However, due to this time constraint, turnover intention is typically used instead of actual turnover. Prior research provides evidence that strongly supports the position that turnover intentions are strongly and consistently related to voluntary turnover (e.g., Griffeth & Hom, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). One reason for this acceptance is because the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that behavioral intention is a good predictor of actual behavior, and in particular previous studies have successfully demonstrated that behavioral intention to

leave is consistently correlated with turnover (e.g., Newman, 1974; Mobley et al., 1979). In addition, research has shown that turnover intention offers a better explanation of turnover because they encompass one's perception and judgment (e.g., Mobley et al., 1979).

Conclusion

Long ago, the conventional answer to the question of why individuals leave organizations may well have been because they don't like their jobs and has no place else to go. In addition, relatively little was known about how an individual's attitudes are influenced by events that originate outside an organization, but that can have impact upon the organization (Arciniega et al., 2018). Since its inception, job embeddedness theory (Mitchell et al., 2001) has encouraged management researchers to consider co-existing motives for leaving and staying within individuals (Woo & Allen, 2014). Being less concerned with the influence of an overall connection, this research study of job embeddedness profiles focuses on the specific levels of connectedness within an organization. Therefore, researching job embeddedness profiles adds clarity to existing research that has explored an extensive list of work and nonwork factors that create forces for staying on a job. Finally, I conclude that a more person-centered approach capitalizes on both the organization and community's unique strengths in relation to the individual, which is more effective in capturing and advancing understanding of job embeddedness.

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TABLE 1: Sample Acquisition Data

	Number	Percent
Total Attempted Responses collected by Qualtrics	639	100%
Refused Consent	0.00	0.00%
Failed Screener Question based on age	(15)	2.42%
Failed Screener Question based on working < 30 hours per week	(2)	0.32%
Failed Screener Question based on main employer not based in US	(3)	0.48%
Abandoned survey	(83)	13.39%
Failed attention check question 1	0.00	0.00%
Failed attention check question 2	0.00	0.00%
Failed attention check question 3	0.00	0.00%
Responses removed due to low-quality	(17)	2.74%
Responses removed due to extreme outliers	(19)	3.06%
Total Responses Used in Final Analysis	500	78.25%

TABLE 2: Sample Characteristics

Variable	Demographics	Count	Valid Percent
Gender	Female	280	56.0%
	Male	220	44.0%
Race	White	311	62.2%
	Black or African American	60	12.0%
	American Indian or Alaska Native	2	0.4%
	Asian	32	6.4%
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	0.2%
	Hispanic or Latino	81	16.2%
	Other	13	2.6%
Age	25 - 34	94	18.8%
	35 - 44	108	21.6%
	45 - 54	109	21.8%
	55 - 64	130	26.0%
	65 - 74	53	10.6%
	75 - 84	6	1.2%
Marital Status	No	210	42.0%
	Yes	290	58.0%
Owned own home	No	154	30.8%
	Yes	346	69.2%

TABLE 2: Sample Characteristics Cont.

Variable	Demographics	Count	Valid Percent
Industry	Accommodation or Food Services	27	5.4%
	Admin, Support, Waste Management, or Remediation Services	7	1.4%
	Arts, Entertainment, or Recreation	9	1.8%
	Construction	23	4.6%
	Educational Services	67	13.4%
	Finance, Banking, or Insurance	53	10.6%
	Forestry, Fishing, Hunting, or Agriculture Support	3	0.6%
	Healthcare or Social Assistance	61	12.2%
	Information Technology	44	8.8%
	Management of companies or enterprises	4	0.8%
	Manufacturing	41	8.2%
	Professional, Scientific, or Technical Services	23	4.6%
	Real Estate or Rental and Leasing	10	2.0%
	Retail Trade	35	7.0%
	Transportation or Warehousing	9	1.8%
	Utilities	7	1.4%
	Wholesale Trade	9	1.8%
	Other Services (except Public Administration)	51	10.2%
	Other	17	3.4%
Tenure with Organization	1 - 3 years	61	12.2%
	3 - 5 years	78	15.6%
	5 - 8 years	120	24.0%
	8 - 10 years	41	8.2%
	10 + years	200	40.0%

TABLE 2: Sample Characteristics Cont.

Variable	Demographics	Count	Valid Percent
Tenure in Industry	0 - 5 years	98	19.6%
	5 - 10 years	110	22.0%
	10 - 15 years	71	14.2%
	15 - 20 years	62	12.4%
	20 - 25 years	53	10.6%
	25 - 30 years	47	9.4%
	30 + years	59	11.8%

TABLE 3: Summary Descriptives, Zero-Order Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

Scale	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Job-Based Fit	5.29	1.21	500	(0.924)												
2. Non-Job-Based_Fit	0.78	0.30	500	.373*	(0.776)											
3. Job-Based Links	0.00	0.54	500	.196*	.090*	(0.587)										
4. Non-Job-Based Links	0.00	0.53	500	.265*	.282*	.228*	(0.492)									
5. Job-Based Sacrifice	4.93	1.33	500	.764*	.351*	.211*	.223*	(0.924)								
6. Non-Job-Based Sacrifice	5.02	1.21	500	.521*	.570*	.216*	.356*	.482*	(0.601)							
7. Social Desireability	3.52	0.61	500	.281*	.135*	0.087	.090*	.220**	.217**	(0.769)						
8. Affective Commitment	4.48	1.29	500	.760*	.392*	.193*	.231*	.704*	.473*	.785*	(0.866)					
9. Normative Commitment	4.24	1.03	500	.508*	.290*	.200*	.172*	.467*	.354*	.527*	.614*	(0.770)				
10. Continuance Commitment	4.84	1.15	500	-.215*	-.162*	-0.004	-0.092	-.146*	-.158*	-.211*	-.212*	-0.112	(0.792)			
11. Klein et al. Unidimensional Target	3.70	1.04	500	.701*	.351*	.231*	.185*	.591*	.476*	.287*	.759*	.646*	-.122*	(0.950)		
12. Job Satisfaction	3.79	0.91	500	.811*	.359*	.173*	.277*	.743*	.461*	.256*	.785*	.527*	-.211*	.725*	(0.924)	
13. Turnover Intentions	2.54	1.23	500	-.558*	-.280*	-.129*	-.161*	-.498*	-.324*	-.251*	-.676*	-.427*	.148*	-.565*	-.621*	(0.810)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
Cronbach's alpha values are provided on the diagonal in parenthesis.

TABLE 4: Job Embeddedness CFA Results and Nested Model Comparison (Chi-Square Differences Test)

Model	$\chi 2$	$\chi 2$ diff.	df	dfΔ	Pr(>$\chi 2$)	p-value	CFI	TLI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Six-Factor	2733.83	-	725	-	-	0.001	0.81	0.79	0.76	0.07	0.08
Three-Factor	3688.26	934.42	737	12	< 2.2e-16	0.001	0.72	0.70	0.68	0.09	0.10
Two-Factor	4246.75	578.49	739	2	< 2.2e-16	0.001	0.67	0.65	0.62	0.10	0.09
One-Factor	4887.23	640.48	740	1	< 2.2e-16	0.001	0.61	0.58	0.57	0.11	0.09

TABLE 5: Profile Model Fit Statistics

Model	Entropy	AIC	BIC	SABIC	LMRT	LMRT p-value	BLRT	BLRT p-value
1-Profile	-	41107	41285	41152	-	-	-	-
2-Profile	0.940	38432	38704	38501	2699	0.0000	2718	0.0000
3-Profile	0.916	37643	38009	37736	827	0.3967	833	0.3941
4-Profile	0.936	37178	37637	37294	505	0.0024	509	0.0000
5-Profile	0.910	36833	37386	36974	388	0.5177	388	0.0000
6-Profile	0.919	36667	37313	36830	210	0.5237	210	0.0000

Note: Entropy statistic close to 1 (ranges from 0 to 1 with higher values indicative of higher classification, or clean classification based on posterior probabilities. AIC = Akaike information criterion is an estimator of prediction error and thereby the relative quality of statistical models for a given set of data where the smallest result indicates a better fit. BIC = Bayesian information criterion is a criterion for model selection among a finite set of models; the model with the lowest BIC is preferred. SABIC = sample-adjusted Bayesian information criterion is a predictive fit index used to select the model that has the best fit and fewer parameters. Values represent the distance between the current and true model. BLRT = bootstrapped likelihood ratio test. BLRT is a log-likelihood difference test. A value of $p < 0.05$ indicates that a k-1 class model provides a better fit than a k-class model.

TABLE 6: Posterior Probabilities

Model	N	1	2	3	4	5	6
1-Profile	500	1	-	-	-	-	-
2-Profile	500	0.977	0.023	-	-	-	-
3-Profile	500	0.940	0.975	0.973	-	-	-
4-Profile	500	0.965	0.947	0.972	0.979	-	-
5-Profile	500	0.977	0.927	0.937	0.939	0.970	-
6-Profile	500	0.974	0.967	0.930	0.942	0.931	0.991

Note: Posterior probabilities are the probability that an individual belongs to the assigned profile and to no other profiles.

TABLE 7: Profile Membership for the 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, and 6-profile models

Model	N	1	2	3	4	5	6
1-profile	500	500	-	-	-	-	-
2-profile	500	173	327	-	-	-	-
3-profile	500	184	84	232	-	-	-
4-profile	500	82	173	217	28	-	-
5-profile	500	66	122	181	103	28	-
6-profile	500	48	2	126	101	194	29

Table 8: Job Embeddedness Factor Means Associated with the 3-Profile Model

Profile	n	JBF	NJBF	JBL	NJBL	JBS	NJBS
Highly Embedded	232	0.73	0.44	0.17	0.29	0.72	0.52
Moderately Embedded	184	-0.24	-0.26	-0.03	-0.14	-0.28	-0.29
Low Embedded	84	-1.58	-0.67	-0.45	-0.43	-1.44	-0.90
Post Hoc Comparisons	-	1>2>3	1>2>3	1>2>3	1>2>3	1>2>3	1>2>3

Note: JBF = Job-Based Fit, NJBF = Non-Job-Based Fit, JBL = Job-Based Links, NJBL = Non-Job-Based Links, JBS = Job-Based Sacrifice, and NJBS = Non-Job-Based Sacrifice

Table 9: Chi-Square Tests for Industry and Profile

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	58.748a	36	0.010*
Likelihood Ratio	64.099	36	0.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.727	1	0.394
N of Valid Cases	500	-	-

a. 28 cells (49.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.
* p < .05 or less indicates statistical significance

Table 10: Chi-Square Tests for Age and Profile

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	112.584a	104	0.266
Likelihood Ratio	129.427	104	0.046
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.147	1	0.284
N of Valid Cases	500	-	-

a. 123 cells (77.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.
* p < .05 or less indicates statistical significance

Table 11: Chi-Square Tests for Gender and Profile

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.906a	2	0.019*
Likelihood Ratio	8.032	2	0.018
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.483	1	0.115
N of Valid Cases	500	-	-

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 36.96.
* p < .05 or less indicates statistical significance.

Table 12: Chi-Square Tests for Race and Profile

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.894a	12	0.091
Likelihood Ratio	18.231	12	0.109
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.137	1	0.712
N of Valid Cases	500		

a. 8 cells (38.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .17.
* p < .05 or less indicates statistical significance.

Table 13: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Job Embeddedness Factors for Profiles

Factor	df	SS	MS	F	Partial Eta Squared
Job-Based Fit	2	301.27	150.63	507.58*	0.67
	494	146.04	0.3		
Non-Job-Based Fit	2	85.05	42.52	52.41*	0.18
	494	400.83	0.81		
Job-Based Links	2	20.56	10.28	10.73*	0.04
	494	473.56	0.96		
Non-Job-Based Link	2	34.87	17.43	19.01*	0.07
	494	452.99	0.92		
Job-Based Sacrifice	2	271.58	135.79	360.53*	0.59
	494	186.06	0.38		
Non-Job-Based Sacrifice	2	130.84	65.42	94.25*	0.28
	494	342.91	0.69		

* p < .05

TABLE 14: Dependent Variable Means Associated with the 3-Profile Model (controlling for SDR)

Profile	n	Affective Commitment	Normative Commitment	Continuance Commitment	KUT Measure	Job Satisfaction	Turnover Intent
Highly Embedded	232	0.75	0.53	-0.11	0.68	0.71	-0.53
Moderately Embedded	184	-0.33	-0.22	0.04	-0.26	-0.18	0.21
Low Embedded	84	-1.51	-1.02	0.35	-1.34	-1.61	1.71
Post-hoc Comparisons	-	1>2>3	1>2>3	3>2>1	1>2>3	1<2<3	3>2>1

Note: KUT Measure = Klein et al. (2014) Unidimensional Target neutral (KUT) commitment measure

TABLE 15: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Dependent Variable Factors for Profiles

Dependent Variable	df	SS	MS	F	Partial Eta Squared
Affective Commitment	2	299.13	149.56	494.07*	0.67
	494	149.54	0.30		
Normative Commitment	2	142.56	71.28	109.85*	0.31
	494	400.83	0.65		
Continuance Commitment	2	11.24	5.62	5.80*	0.02
	494	479.00	0.97		
KUT Commitment	2	238.13	119.07	280.94*	0.53
	494	209.37	0.42		
Job Satisfaction	2	297.27	148.64	508.28*	0.67
	494	144.46	0.29		
Turnover Intentions	2	165.83	82.92	140.60*	0.36
	494	291.32	0.59		

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX A: Cover Letters and Informed Consent Notification

Respondents are to be recruited by Qualtrics and sent a link to the survey in Qualtrics Experience Management (XM) platform. Qualtrics will present all candidates with the cover letter and consent below during the recruitment process. Additionally, upon commencing the survey, all respondents will be presented with the cover letter and consent and must select agree. If a respondent selects disagree, they will immediately exit from the survey; they can also opt-out at any given time. Respondents are encouraged to screenshot the cover letter and consent for their records.

Department of Management
9201 University City Boulevard, Charlotte, NC 28223-0001

Title of the Project: Job Embeddedness Profile Analysis (working title)

Principal Investigator: Geoffrey B. Nau, MBA, BSN, RN, University of North Carolina Charlotte

Faculty Advisor: David J. Woehr, PhD, University of North Carolina Charlotte

Cover Letter and Consent

You are being invited to participate in this research study and your participation is completely voluntary. The information that you are provided below is given so that you can decide if you wish to participate. This information is being collected by Geoffrey B. Nau for support of a dissertation research project for the Belk College of Business at the University of North Carolina – Charlotte; under the direction of David J. Woehr, PhD. Your participation is

voluntary, and your responses will be completely anonymous and confidential. This study will not collect any identifiable personal information and all the data collected will be for research purposes only. Thank you for your participation.

* The purpose of this study is to examine individuals' perceptions of job embeddedness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

* You must be 18 years or older to participate.

* You must be an employed, full-time working adult (> 30 hours/per week) and have been employed by this firm for at least one (1) year.

* You will be discussing your thoughts and feelings of your current work environment and community life outside of work.

* Your current (main) employer must be located in the United States of America.

* You are being asked to complete this survey by answering a series of questions about your yourself, perceptions, feelings, and attitudes you have toward your current work-life space and community life.

* This survey will take approximately 15- 20 minutes to complete.

* We do not believe that you will experience any risks by participating in this study.

* No benefits are being offered in exchange for your participation in this study, aside from any compensation due from Qualtrics.

Your privacy will be protected, and all confidentiality will be preserved to the highest possible extent. All your responses will be kept confidential and will not be attached to any personally identifiable information. This survey data may be used in future studies without additional consent from you. Your participation is voluntary. You may opt not to participate in

this study (below) by selecting “No, I do not consent” below and have the ability to opt-out of participation at any time after you begin the survey.

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study, please feel free to contact the Office of Research Compliance (UNCC) at (704) 687-1871 or www.uncc-irb@uncc.edu and include study number 21-0148 for reference.

You are encouraged and permitted to print out this form. If you are 18 years of age or older and have reviewed and understand that your responses are being freely provided, you may proceed with this survey.

To continue with the survey, please select “Yes, I consent” (below)

APPENDIX B: Instructions and Scales

Instructions: Please answer the following questions regarding yourself.		
Demographic and Screening Variables		
Question	Variable Type	Answer Options
1. What is your current age?	Demographic Screening	Drop-down menu with range from 18-99
2. How many months have you been at your current primary (main) employer	Demographic; Screening	Drop-down menu with range from 0-480 (If less than 12 months is selected, respondent will be exited from survey).
3. Is your current primary (main) employer located in the USA?	Screening	Drop-down menu with options: 1. Yes; 2. No; 3. Don't know (If no is selected, respondent will be exited from survey).
4. How many hours (on average) do you currently work per week at your primary (main) employer?	Screening	Drop-down menu with options: 1. Yes; 2. No; 3. Don't know (If no is selected, respondent will be exited from survey).
5. What is your gender?	Demographic; Screening	Drop-down menu: 0. Female; 1. Male; 2. Choose not to answer.
6. Please specify your race/ethnicity	Demographic; Screening	Drop-down menu: 1. White; 2. Black or African American; 3. American Indian or Alaska Native; 4. Asian; 5. Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander; 6. Hispanic or Latino; or 7. Other.

Question	Variable Type	Answer Options
7. Please select the best description of your current primary (main) employer's industry.	Demographic	Drop-down menu: 1. Accommodation or Food Services; 2. Admin, Support, Waste Management, or Remediation Services; 3. Arts, Entertainment, or Recreation; 4. Construction; 5. Educational Services; 6. Finance, Banking, or Insurance; 7. Forestry, Fishing, Hunting, or Agriculture Support; 8. Healthcare or Social Assistance; 9. Information Technology; 10. Management of companies or enterprises; 11. Manufacturing; 12. Mining; 13. Professional, Scientific, or Technical Services; 14. Real Estate or Rental and Leasing; 15. Retail Trade; 16. Transportation or Warehousing; 17. Utilities; 18. Wholesale Trade; 19. Other Services (except Public Administration); and 20. Unclassified establishments not listed above.

Job Embeddedness

Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., Lee, T. W., Sablynski, C. J., & Erez, M. (2001). Why people stay: Using job embeddedness to predict voluntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal, 44(6)*, 1102-1121.

Items to Measure Job-Based Fit:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. ___ I like the members of my work group.

2. ___My coworkers are similar to me.

3. ___My job utilizes my talents and skills well.

4. ___I feel like I am a good match for this company.

5. ___I fit with the company's culture.

6. ___I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company.

7. ___My values are compatible with the organization's values.

8. ___I can reach my professional goals working for this organization.

9. ___I feel good about my professional growth and development.

If you have read this question, please select Disagree – Attention check question

Items to Measure Non-Job-Based Fit:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using a response scale below, indicate yes or no with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

0	1
No	Yes

1. ___I really love the place I live.

2. ___The weather where I live is suitable for me.

3. ___This community is a good match for me.

4. ___I think of the community where I live as home.

5. ___The area where I live offers the leisure activities that I like.

Items to Measure Job-Based Links:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about your position and interactions within your workspace. Indicate your response to each item by placing the appropriate numerical response on the line preceding that item.

1. ___How long have you been at your present position?

2. ___How long have you worked for this company?

3. ___How long have you worked in the [industry type] industry?

4. ___How many coworkers do you interact with regularly?

5. ___How many coworkers are highly dependent upon you?

6. ___How many work teams are you on?

7. ___How many committees are you on?

Items to Measure Non-Job-Based Links:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you and your non-work (community) space. Using the response scale mentioned, indicate your response with each item by placing the appropriate response on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers for questions 1 – 4. Use a numerical response for only questions 5 and 6.

0	1
No	Yes

1. ___Are you currently married?

2. ___If you are married, does your spouse work outside the home?

3. ___Do you own the home you live in?

4. ___My family roots are in this community.

5. ___How many family members live nearby? (Numerical response)

6. ___How many of your close friends live nearby? (Numerical response)

Items to Measure Job-Based Sacrifice:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. ___I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.

2. ___The perks on this job are outstanding.

3. ___I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.

4. ___I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job.

5. ___My promotional opportunities are excellent here.

6. ___I am well compensated for my level of performance.

7. ___The benefits are good on this job.

8. ___The healthcare benefits provided by this organization are excellent.

9. ___The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent.

10. ___The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent

Items to Measure Non-Job-Based Sacrifice:

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. ___Leaving the community would be very hard.

2. ___People respect me a lot in my community.

3. ___My neighborhood is safe.

If you have read this question, please select Agree – Attention check question

Job Satisfaction

Pond III, S. B., & Geyer, P. D. (1991). Differences in the relation between job satisfaction and perceived work alternatives among older and younger blue-collar workers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 39(2),* 251-262.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements concerning your overall satisfaction in your current role with your employer in a full-time capacity. Using the response scale below the question, indicate an appropriate numerical response on the line preceding that item.

1._____ If you had to decide all over again whether to take the job you now have, what would you decide? Base your response using the below scale.

Definitely not take job	Not take the job	Unsure	Take the job	Definitely take the job
1	2	3	4	5

2._____If a friend asked if they should apply for a job like yours with your employer, what would you recommend? Base your response using the below scale.

Strongly not recommend	Not recommend	Neither	Recommend	Strongly Recommend
1	2	3	4	5

3._____Using the scale below, how does this job compare to your ideal job?

Very far from ideal	Far from ideal	Unsure	Close to ideal	Very close to ideal
1	2	3	4	5

4._____Using the scale below, how does your job measure up to the sort of job you wanted when you took it?

Not at all what I wanted	Not what I wanted	Unsure	What I wanted	Just what I wanted
1	2	3	4	5

5._____All things considered, how satisfied are you with your current job? Base your response using the below scale.

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Unsure	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

6._____In general, how much do you like your job? Base your response using the below scale.

Not at all	Not at all sometimes	Unsure	A great deal sometimes	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

Organizational Commitment

Meyer, J. P., Barak, I., & Vandenberghe, C. (1996). Revised measures of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to organizations. Unpublished manuscript. Department of Psychology, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Items to Measure Affective Commitment

1._____ I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

2._____ I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.

3._____I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

4._____I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (-)

5._____I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (-)

6._____I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (-)

7._____This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

8._____I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (-)

Items to Measure Continuance Commitment

If you have read this question, please select Neutral – Attention check question

1.____One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

2._____It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (-)

3._____Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.

4._____It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to.

5._____One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be scarcity of available alternatives.

6._____I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

7._____I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (-)

8._____Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.

Items to Measure Normative Commitment

1._____I think that people these days move from company to company too often.

2._____I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (-)

3._____Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (-)

4._____One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

5._____If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.

6._____I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

7._____Things are better in the days when people stayed with one organization most of their careers.

8._____I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore. (-)

Organizational Commitment scale scoring: (-) denotes reversed-scored items.

Klein et al. Unidimensional Target neutral (KUT) Commitment Measure

Klein, H. J., Cooper, J. T., Molloy, J. C., & Swanson, J. A. (2014). The assessment of commitment: Advantages of a unidimensional, target-free approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*, 222-238.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you and your organization that with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate numerical response on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely

1._____How committed are you to your organization?

2._____To what extent do you care about your organization?

3._____How dedicated are you to your organization ?

4._____To what extent have you chosen to be committed your organization ?

Turnover Intentions

Stanley, L., Vandenberghe, C., Vandenberg, R., & Bentein, K. (2013). Commitment profiles and employee turnover. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 82(3)*, 176-187.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate numerical response on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Turnover Intentions

1._____I often think about quitting this organization.

2._____I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year.

Social Desirability

Strahan, R. & Gerbasi, K. C. (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the Marlow-Crow Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 28(2),* 191-193.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale below, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. ____ I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
2. ____ I always try to practice what I preach.
3. ____ I never resent being asked to return a favor.
4. ____ I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
5. ____ I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.
6. ____ I like to gossip at times. (-)
7. ____ There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (-)
8. ____ I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (-)
9. ____ At times I have really insisted on having things my own way. (-)
10. ____ There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things. (-)

Social Desirability scale scoring: (-) denotes reversed-scored items.

APPENDIX C: Summary Table of Job Embeddedness Literature

Author (Date)	Job Embeddedness Type	Key Finding	Job Embeddedness Scale Used
Allen (2006)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Socialization tactics enable organizations to actively embed new employees; collective, fixed, and investiture tactics were positively related to on-the-job embeddedness. Results also indicate that job-based embeddedness is negatively related to turnover and mediates relationships between some socialization tactics and turnover.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument used however two items that assessed how long the respondents had been in their job and how long they had been in the organization were not used because of the intentional homogeneity of tenure in the sample and because tenure was used as a control variable.
Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney, & Taylor (2009)	Job-Based	Job embeddedness mediates compensation and growth opportunity, partially mediated supervisor support, and did not mediate training in relation to individual's intention to quit.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument
Burton, Holtom, Sablynski, Mitchell, & Lee (2010)	Job-Based	Job-based embeddedness helps reduce the impact of negative shocks on organizational citizenship and overall job performance.	Participants rated their perceived level of embeddedness in the organization with nine items (Felps et al., 2009).
Chan, Ho, Sambasivan, & Ng (2019)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Level of control over work hours and felt obligation have significant relationships with job-based embeddedness. Job-based embeddedness has a significant relationship with proactive customer service performance. Job-based embeddedness mediates the relationship between felt obligation and proactive customer service performance. Non-job-based embeddedness has a significant relationship with on-the-job embeddedness.	Non-job-based embeddedness was measured using a 6-item reflective scale created by Ng and Feldman (2013). Job-based embeddedness was measured using the seven reflective items from Crossley et al. (2007).

Clinton, Knight, & Guest (2012)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Study tested a new reflective measure of job embeddedness across three military samples and one nonmilitary organization.	Clinton, Knight, & Guest (2012) created a 24-item reflective measure for job embeddedness. Each category of job embeddedness utilized two questions. CFA for this study loaded onto two factors, job- and non-job-based.
Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield (2007)	Overall Job Embeddedness	This study developed and tested a global, reflective measure of job embeddedness that claims to overcome important limitations and serve as a companion to the original Mitchell et al. (2001) composite measure. Results of this longitudinal study found that job embeddedness predicted voluntary turnover beyond job attitudes and core variables from traditional models of turnover. Results also found that job embeddedness interacted with job satisfaction to predict voluntary turnover, suggesting that the job embeddedness construct extends beyond the unfolding model of turnover.	Created a nine-item reflective, global measure of job embeddedness. Does not clarify job-based versus non-job-based embeddedness.
Cunningham , Fink, & Sagas (2005)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	The purpose of this study was to provide further examination of Mitchell et al.'s (2001) job embeddedness construct. Results from two independent samples indicate that the revised multi-item scale and the newly created global-item scale both accounted for large portions of the variance in stay intentions beyond the control variables. Only the global-item scale, however, predicted stay intentions beyond the effects of commonly used attachment variables - job satisfaction and organizational commitment - thereby demonstrating the strength of the newly created scale over Mitchell et al.'s multi-item measure.	These researchers used a modified version of the Mitchell et al. (2001) scale totaling 40-items. In addition, these researchers also created a global scale where a single-item for each of the six categories of job embeddedness was used from the original Mitchell et al. (2001) measure.

Dawley & Andrews (2012)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Study highlights the importance of both job- and non-job-based embeddedness as predictor of turnover intentions. Study suggests that job-based embeddedness is a stronger predictor than non-job-based embeddedness in the context of turnover intention. Moreover, this study represents an initial look at the interplay between the two dimensions of job embeddedness rather than the overall, separate, or cumulative effect offered by previous researchers. Findings indicate that those with low non-job-based embeddedness will reduce turnover intentions to a greater extent than those with high non-job-based embeddedness as job-based embeddedness increases.	Job- & non-job-based embeddedness was measured using a 34-item scale created by Lee et al. (2004) of the original Mitchell et al. (2001) measure.
Felps, Mitchell, Hekman, Lee, Holtom, & Harman (2009)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Coworkers job embeddedness and job search behaviors play critical roles in explaining why people.	Assessed the degree to which an individual's coworker's embeddedness using a 21-item short version of job embeddedness developed by Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Tidd (2006) of the Mitchell et al. (2001) scale.
Halbesleben & Wheeler (2008)	Job-based	Job-based embeddedness shared unique variance with turnover intentions, while work engagement did not.	Job embeddedness was measured using the 23 job-based embeddedness items published by Mitchell et al. (2001).
Heritage, Gilbert, & Roberts (2016)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Study compared two competing reflective measures of job embeddedness, examining their convergent, criterion, and incremental validity, as a means reducing their turnover intentions. Cross-sectional quantitative data from Australian university employees, findings indicated that the two compared measures of job embeddedness were convergent when total scale scores were examined. Additionally, job embeddedness was capable of demonstrating criterion and incremental validity, predicting unique variance in turnover intention. However, this finding was not readily apparent with one of the compared job embeddedness measures, which demonstrated comparatively weaker evidence of validity.	Two reflective scales measured job embeddedness: the global job embeddedness scale by Crossley et al., (2007), and the job embeddedness measure of Clinton et al. (2012).

Holtom, Crossley, & Burton (2012)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Job embeddedness mediates the relationship between negative shocks and job search behaviors as well as counterproductive work behaviors. The study further examines the role of dispositional influences on reactions to negative workplace shocks and how these reactions affect organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior and job search behavior. Results indicated a moderated-mediation effect of negative affectivity on each of these outcomes.	Global job embeddedness measure by Crossley et al. (2007).
Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Tidd, (2006)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Article discussed a need for a shortened version of the Mitchell et al. (2001) measure.	Job embeddedness was assessed by a 21-item short version of job embeddedness developed by Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Tidd (2006) of the Mitchell et al. (2001) scale.
Holtom & Inderrieden (2006)	Overall Job Embeddedness	The study combined critical elements of the unfolding model with the job embeddedness model to expand understanding of the voluntary turnover process. Specifically, demonstrating that establishing or increasing job embeddedness is likely to increase retention, attendance, citizenship behaviors, and job performance.	These researchers created a composite measure of job embeddedness by using items from Mitchell et al. (2001) survey.
Holtom & O'Neill (2004)	Overall Job Embeddedness	The study indicated that job embeddedness predicted turnover over and beyond a combination of perceived desirability of movement measures (job satisfaction, organizational commitment) and perceived ease of movement measures (job alternatives, job search) in hospital nurses.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument.
Holtom, Smith, Lindsay, & Burton (2014)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Longitudinal study explored the relative strength of job satisfaction, components of organizational commitment, dimensions of job embeddedness and person– organization fit as predictors of voluntary turnover at the U.S. Air Force Academy. Results indicated that job satisfaction, affective commitment, job-based embeddedness, and person-organization fit were significantly negatively related to turnover.	Edits were made to the Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument to fit with the military setting.

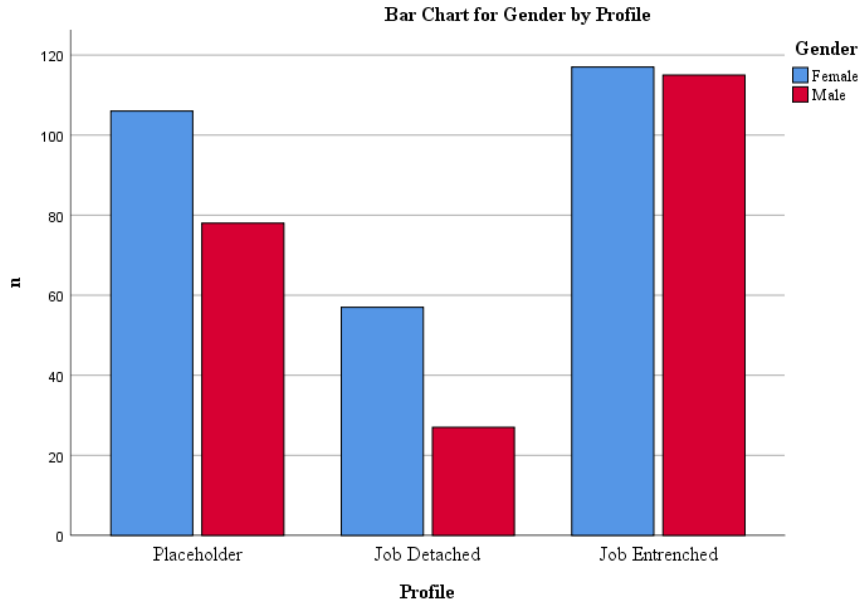
Hom, Tsui, Wu, Lee, Zhang, Fu, & Li (2009)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Study tested whether social exchange and job embeddedness mediate how mutual-investment (whereby employers offer high inducements to employees for their high contributions) and over-investment (high inducements without corresponding high expected contributions) employee–organization relationships. Two studies evaluated these intervening mechanisms. Study 1 surveyed Chinese managers attending part-time master of business administration programs in China, whereas Study 2 collected cross-sectional and longitudinal data from Chinese middle managers. Social exchange and job embeddedness translate employee–organization relationships influence. A second multilevel test further established that job embeddedness mediates long-term employee - organization relationships effects over 18 months.	Used an adapted version Mitchell et al.'s (2001) job-based embeddedness scale, first translating to Chinese and then back to English.
Jiang, Liu, McKay, Lee, Mitchell, & Jiang (2012)	Job- & Non-Job Based	Meta-analytic study of the relationships between job embeddedness and turnover outcomes. Found that job-based & non-job-based embeddedness negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover, after controlling for job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job alternatives. In addition, the negative relationships between job-based embeddedness (non-job-based embeddedness) and turnover criteria were stronger in female-dominated samples and public organizations (collectivistic countries). Finally, turnover intentions, job search behavior, and job performance fully (partially) mediated the effect of job-based embeddedness (non-job-based embeddedness) on actual turnover.	Coded job-based embeddedness & non-job-based embeddedness using the scale developed by Mitchell et al. (2001) and Lee et al. (2004).
Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, & Holtom (2004)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	Study extended job embeddedness theory by disaggregating into two major subdimensions, job- & non-job-based embeddedness. Regression analyses revealed that non-job-based embeddedness was significantly predictive of subsequent voluntary turnover and volitional absences, whereas job-based embeddedness was not. In addition, job-based embeddedness was significantly predictive of organizational citizenship and job performance, whereas non-job-based embeddedness was not. Job embeddedness moderated the effects of absences, citizenship, and performance on turnover.	Edits were made to the Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument and divided job embeddedness into two constructs.
Li, Lee, Mitchell, Hom, & Griffeth (2016)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Study found that job satisfaction and job embeddedness more strongly influence the intent to leave and job search behavior for enthusiastic stayers and leavers than for reluctant stayers and leavers. More important, those experiencing low control over their preference for leaving or staying (e.g., reluctant stayers and leavers), traditional variables such as job satisfaction, job embeddedness, and intent to leave are poor predictors of their turnover behavior. Study further demonstrated that focusing on enthusiastic stayers and leavers can significantly enhance the accuracy of job satisfaction, job embeddedness, and intent to leave for predicting actual individual turnover.	Job embeddedness was measured with a 21-item short-form scale by Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, and Tidd (2006).

Mallol, Holtom, & Lee (2007)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Study assessed whether there are significant differences between Hispanics and Caucasians with respect to job embeddedness and voluntary turnover. The findings suggested that job embeddedness is a robust predictor of employee retention across diverse populations.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument.
Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez (2001)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Study developed job embeddedness construct to predict key outcomes of both intents to leave and voluntary turnover and explain significant incremental variance over and above job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument.
Ng, Yam, & Aguinis (2019)	Job-Based	Study conducted an experiment and found that participants who envisioned working in a firm that was active regarding corporate social responsibility activities reported greater pride and job-based embeddedness. Study conducted two field studies using a nonmanagerial sample (study two) and a managerial sample (study three) and found that participants perceived corporate social responsibility was positively related to their pride, which in turn was related to stronger organizational embeddedness. Stronger job-based embeddedness was related to lower turnover six months later in study two but not in study three. In study four, study conducted a longitudinal four-wave 14-month study to test the proposed relationships from a within-person conceptualization, and the results were also supportive.	Measured job-based embeddedness with six items taken from Ng and Feldman (2012) measure used.
Reitz (2014)	Overall Job Embeddedness	A regression model using the variables of job embeddedness and age were predictive of nurse retention in a sample of registered nurses working in long term care settings. This study supports the multi-dimensionality, validity and reliability of the underlying job embeddedness construct. However, a different factor structure was suggested that better fit the data.	Mitchell et al. (2001) survey instrument.
Robinson, Kralj, Solnet, Goh, & Callan (2014)	Each aspect and attachment tie of job embeddedness.	Study tested a model of the embeddedness-commitment and embeddedness-turnover relationship, the job embeddedness categories of job-based sacrifice and non-job-based links displayed a positive relationship with organizational commitment. A negative relationship was found between job-based sacrifice and intentions to leave, while a positive relationship was found between non-job-based links and intentions to leave.	An adapted version of the short form of the job embeddedness construct developed by Holtom et al. (2006) was utilized, consisting of 21 items

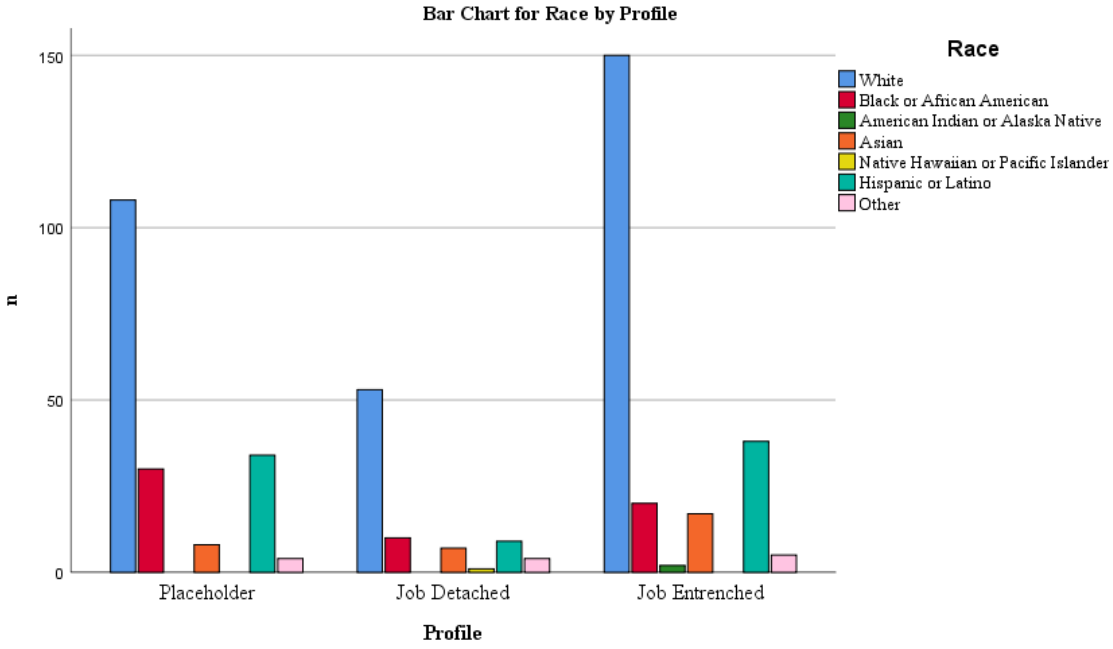
Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablynski (2008)	Job-Based	Study demonstrated that job embeddedness has important implications for employee performance. Findings suggest that although job embeddedness has a relatively weak direct impact on employee performance, it can play an important moderating role in the relationship between LMX and/or organization-based self-esteem and employee performance. Also, findings indicated potential boundary conditions (or the potential dark side) of job embeddedness on employee performance that previous studies have not fully examined. The direct effect of job embeddedness supports the relative weakness of the direct effect of job embeddedness compared with those of LMX and organization-based self-esteem for organizational citizenship behaviors but not for task performance.	Job-based embeddedness was measure using ten items from a scale developed Lee et al., (2004).
Singh, Shaffer, & Selvarajan (2018)	Job-Based	Study found that social support resources emanating from the job- and non-job-based were positively associated with job embeddedness in each domain, and psychological safety mediated these relationships. We also found that need to belong was an important boundary condition in the determination of job-based embeddedness.	Job-based embeddedness was measured using the global job embeddedness scale developed by Crossley et al. (2007). To measure non-job-based embeddedness, a modified version of the Mitchell et al. (2001) job-based embeddedness scale was used by replacing the words work and organization with community.
Swider, Boswell, & Zimmerman (2011)	Overall Job Embeddedness	Study examined factors that may help explain under what conditions employee job search effort may most strongly (or weakly) predict subsequent turnover. Findings showed that job search–turnover relationship was stronger when individuals had lower levels of job embeddedness and job satisfaction and higher levels of available alternatives.	Job embeddedness was measured with a composite of Lee et al.'s (2004) six job embeddedness dimensions (on- and off-the-job links, fit, and sacrifice), consisting of 31 items.

Tanova & Holtom (2008)	Job- & Non-Job-Based	The study was based on a large European dataset that contains information about a wide variety of variables that have been shown to influence voluntary turnover. The results indicated that the traditional turnover model, where ease of movement and desirability of movement are regarded as important predictors of turnover, receives support. Importantly, the study also showed that job embeddedness explained a significant amount of variance above and beyond the role of demographic and traditional variables.	16 items that closely resembled the items used by Mitchell et al. (2001) in the seminal papers on job embeddedness were used with at least two items for each category.
Yang, Ma, & Hu (2011)	Overall Job Embeddedness	A quantitative study that demonstrated that entrepreneurial leadership can reduce employee turnover intentions, and the impact is through job embeddedness, job satisfaction, and affective commitment.	Global job embeddedness measure by Crossley et al. (2007).

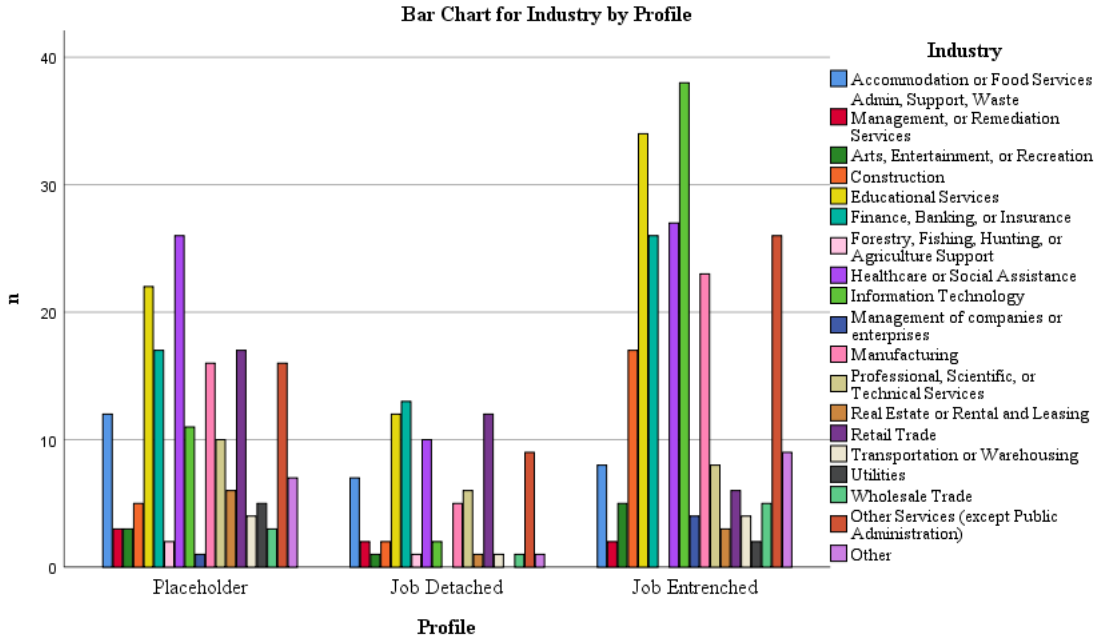
APPENDIX D: Bar Chart for Gender by Profile



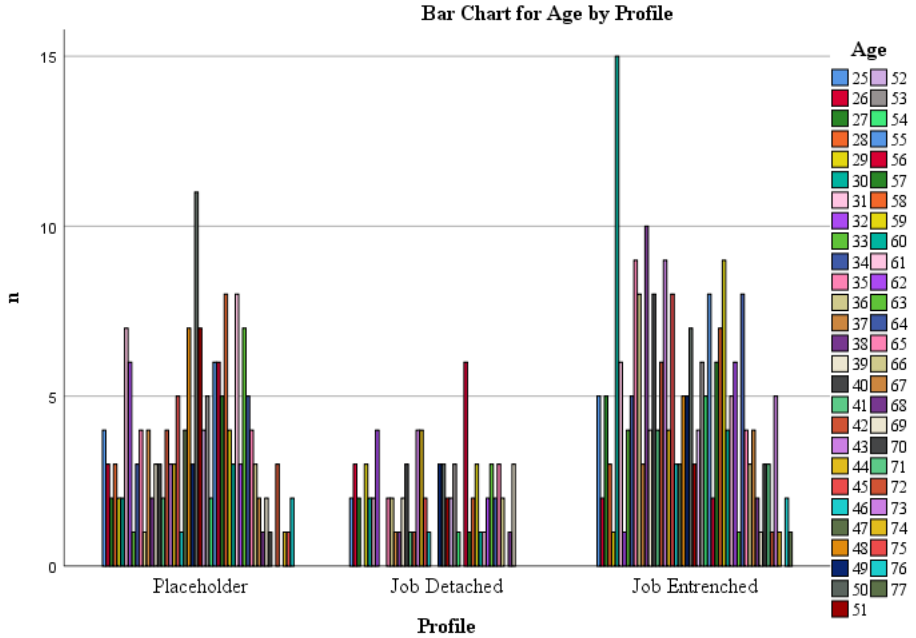
APPENDIX E: Bar Chart for Race by Profile



APPENDIX F: Bar Chart for Race by Profile



APPENDIX G: Bar Chart for Race by Profile



APPENDIX H: Summary of Findings by Hypothesis

Hypothesis	Re-statement	Result	Comments
H1	A six-factor model of job embeddedness provides the best fit to the data corresponding to the original scale instead of a one-, two-, and three-factor model.	Supported	Based on fit indices generated from CFA, a six-factor model was evaluated as the best fit to the data.
H2	Distinct profiles of job embeddedness will emerge.	Supported	Although a 4-profile model was determined to be the best fit for the data, further examination highlights that a 3-profile solution is the most interpretable and meaningful.
H3	There will be a significant mean difference in levels of organizational commitment across job embeddedness profiles.	Supported	Reviewing the ANCOVA results using job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable, overall organizational commitment as the dependent variable, and controlling for SDR indicated that there are significant differences between the profiles concerning organizational commitment.
H4	There will be a significant mean difference in levels of job satisfaction across job embeddedness profiles.	Supported	Reviewing the ANCOVA results using job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable, overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable, and controlling for SDR indicated that there are significant differences between the profiles concerning job satisfaction.
H5	There will be a significant mean difference in levels of turnover intentions across job embeddedness profiles.	Supported	Reviewing the ANCOVA results using job embeddedness profile membership as the independent variable, turnover intentions as the dependent variable, and controlling for SDR indicated that there are significant differences between the profiles concerning turnover intentions.