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EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING PROFILES:
A PERSON-CENTERED APPROACH TO UNDERSTANDING
MULTIPLE DIMENSIONS OF PSYCHOSOCIAL WELL-BEING

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial-Organizational Psychology

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by
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Abstract

Employee well-being research is receiving growing attention as organizations are increasingly turning to well-being improvement to promote employee health and reduce health-related expenditures. Traditional organizational and occupational health studies often examine relationships between employee well-being and its antecedents and outcomes from a variable-centered perspective. The current study adopted a holistic and person-centered approach to well-being assessment, and (1) identified clusters of employees who shared common configurations with regard to multiple dimensions of psychosocial well-being (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community). A profile-based perspective is a more intuitive way for employers/managers to understand employee well-being. The current study also (2) examined physical, work-related, and demographic predictors of profile membership, (3) investigated how profile membership distinguished employees on physical well-being and work-related productivity outcomes, and (4) determined the stability and transition patterns of well-being profiles over time. Study hypotheses and research questions were tested using latent mixture modeling, specifically Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) and Latent Transition Analysis (LTA). A large U.S. population-based dataset containing a representative employee sample was first used to conduct exploratory LPAs and determine the best-fitting profile solution. Two additional two-wave longitudinal employee samples were used to cross-validate the final profile solution, and test the hypotheses regarding profile antecedents, outcomes, and stability. Six distinct psychosocial well-being profiles emerged – discontented, contented, highly contented, financial-dominant, financially insecure, and lack of community well-being. Physical, work-related, and demographic factors were significant predictors of profile membership. Well-being profiles also distinguished employees on physical well-being and job performance. LTAs revealed that well-being profiles were largely stable over time, and some of the profile predictors and outcomes explained the transition probabilities. Results of the current study provide meaningful information and feedback for employer-sponsored well-being improvement programs. A profile-based understanding of employee well-being allows employers/managers to tailor intervention programs based on the needs of specific employee groups, as well as encourage (prevent) movement toward profiles associated with positive (negative) outcomes. Additional implications and directions for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO WELL-BEING AND STUDY OBJECTIVES

Well-being research has received growing attention as governments, communities and organizations are increasingly turning to well-being improvement to promote quality of life, enhance daily functioning, as well as reduce health-related costs. Well-being is a holistic and comprehensive construct incorporating interconnected facets of health - including physical, mental and social elements - which altogether constitute a global representation of individual health (Gross, Riley, & Roy, 2014). Well-being not only refers to the absence of illnesses or physical functioning, but also a positive state of health that allows individuals to pursue meaningful activities, form cohesive interpersonal networks, and grow from negative events (Gross et al., 2014).

The holistic approach to well-being is not new. In fact, according to the World Health Organization (WHO; 1946, “WHO definition of Health”), “health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.” Several efforts to develop and disseminate holistic well-being assessments are underway. These assessments are designed primarily to measure population well-being (e.g., creating benchmarks), and ultimately inform policy makers, community leaders and employers of ways in which health and well-being can be improved or enhanced. For example, a joint venture between Gallup and Healthways led to the creation of the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 instrument that measures and tracks individuals’ well-being based on five interrelated elements: purpose, social, financial, community, and physical (Healthways, n.d.).

Other examples include the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Better Life Index that assesses areas such as income, jobs, health, safety, work-life balance, and civic engagement (OECD Better Life Index, n.d.), and the Quality of Well-Being Scale that is included in the National Health Interview Survey distributed by the U.S. Census Bureau (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2013). These assessments have been instrumental in measuring and tracking individual well-being over time, and developing well-being benchmarks for local communities. They have also been linked with important outcomes, such as healthcare utilization, work performance, absenteeism, obesity status, and disease burden (e.g., Agrawal & Harter, 2011; Harter & Agrawal, 2011; Merrill et al., 2013; Sears et al., 2014).

High levels of well-being are not only favorable for individuals and communities, but also employers. In the U.S., the annual per-person cost of lost productivity in businesses because of sick days is $28,800, whereas the annual cost of lost productivity for employees with the highest levels of well-being is only about $840 (Robison, 2010). Additionally, Gallup's studies of well-being sampling from more than 150 countries suggest that individuals' overall evaluations of life are closely intertwined with their well-being at work and in their career (Rath & Harter, 2010a). A large body of literature also supports the assertion that unhealthy employees can create significant cost burdens for employers (e.g., Berry, Mirabito, & Baun, 2010; Goetzel, Ozminkowski, Sederer, & Mark, 2002; Harter, Schmidt, Asplund, Killham, & Agrawal, 2010). Because employee well-being has a substantial impact on organizational performance, it would be prudent for employers/organizations to assess and manage it.

In fact, the WHO also recognizes the importance of healthy work environments to employee well-being and has created a healthy workplace model in their call for global action (WHO, n.d.). The healthy workplace model addresses key areas in which employers can create and facilitate a work environment that enables healthy behaviors among employees, including the implementation of wellness programs, tobacco-free policies, and accessible health insurance plans. The WHO model highlights the importance of commitment and support from major stakeholders (e.g., senior leadership) to integrate healthy workplaces into an organization’s mission and strategies - so that a healthy workplace can sustainably protect and promote the health, safety, and well-being of all employees (WHO, n.d.).

The integration of protection and promotion efforts in advancing worker well-being is also advocated in the Total Worker Health (TWH) initiative introduced by the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH). TWH is considered a comprehensive approach that *combines* health promotion or wellness programs with traditional programs designed to protect worker safety and health. The emphasis of health or wellness promotion among employees appears not only in conceptual models developed by the WHO and NIOSH, but also in organizational settings.

In order to maximize employees' engagement, productivity and business profitability, many employers have invested resources in wellness promotion programs (e.g., health-risk assessments, tobacco-cessation programs). These programs have become a part of strategic planning and an effort to improve employee health and minimize healthcare expenditures in many organizations. According to the Kaiser Family Foundation and Health Research and Education Trust (2014), 98% of employers with 200 or more employees and 73% of smaller employers offer some form of wellness program to their employees. Another survey conducted by Aon Hewitt (2013) revealed similar trends, such that 85% of employers in their sample have implemented some form of wellness and health improvement program, and another 14% are planning to implement similar programs in the next 3 to 5 years.

Despite the surge of health promotion efforts in the workplace, research on whether workplace health promotion programs actually improve health and well-being, as well as save health-related expenditure, is mixed (O'Donnell, 2013). Multiple systematic reviews of the literature concluded that workplace health promotion programs are effective in improving health and reducing costs (e.g., Baicker, Cutler, & Song, 2010; Chapman, 2012; Parks & Steelman, 2008; Soler et al., 2010). However, in these meta-analytic reviews, individual studies were closely examined and must meet certain criteria (e.g., study design, sample size, reliability and validity of measurement tools) before they were included in subsequent meta-analytic procedures and final conclusions (O'Donnell, 2013). In other words, studies that were included tend to be well-designed and well-executed, and thus meta-analyses might have overstated program effectiveness (O'Donnell, 2013). Especially with significant variation in study designs and a lack of standardization in the measurement methodology (Chapman, 2012), it is probably not surprising that results from other studies do not necessarily also support the practical utility and effectiveness of workplace wellness programs (e.g., Cawley & Price, 2013; Mattke et al., 2013).

Given the mixed findings with regard to the effectiveness of employer-sponsored wellness programs, additional research is needed to gain a deeper understanding of employee well-being. Employers have been criticized for not thoroughly examining employee well-being and understanding the root causes of poor health or well-being prior to establishing wellness program goals and implementing the programs (Mattke et al., 2013). In addition, many organizations simply offer a one-size-fits-all package (i.e., not tailored to different groups) to employees rather than assessing individual needs. For example, biometric screenings (or annual physicals) are one of the increasingly popular programs employers incorporate as a primary component of their wellness programs (Aon Hewitt, 2013). However, these health screenings often do not involve feedback or employee engagement in follow-up sessions (e.g., setting goals and strategies to lose weight), and programs as such are inadequate and ineffective in improving health (O'Donnell, 2013; Soler et al., 2010). Moreover, most wellness programs focus on employees' physical health. Physical health screenings provide limited insights into employees' overall health and well-being (e.g., mental health is not assessed), and fail to generate information regarding other facets of well-being (e.g., financial well-being and social well-being).

The current study sought to inform future efforts in the design of workplace wellness promotion with ways in which well-being can be more thoroughly assessed and tracked over time. The Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 assessment was used as a holistic and complete measurement of employees' well-being; the five well-being elements are purpose, social, financial, community, and physical. It is an actionable instrument that can also be used to inform the development of well-being promotion interventions (Sears et al., 2014). The overarching goal of the current study was to adopt a holistic and person-centered approach to well-being assessment, with specific goals of (a) determining how employee well-being can be more easily and intuitively understood by employers, and also (b) how wellness promotion can be implemented by tailoring to the needs of different groups of employees.

A person-centered approach was selected for this study because it allows organizations to more clearly understand where their employees belong in terms of well-being profiles (or groups), and more directly tailor their organizational interventions based on the specific needs of different employee groups. This is a relatively novel approach in the employee well-being literature. The current study adopted a semi-inductive approach to generate a deeper theoretical understanding of employee well-being profiles. Results are expected to inform future efforts in workplace wellness promotion, and encourage researchers and practitioners to continue pursuing a person-centered approach to understanding employee well-being.

The *first objective* of the current study was to identify subgroups within a sample which shared common configurations (i.e., profiles or response patterns) with regard to the multiple well-being components. Most of the research in the area of employee well-being has utilized variable-centered approaches (e.g., regression, structural equation models) in examining the antecedents and outcomes of employee well-being (e.g., Harter et al., 2010; Kuoppala, Lamminpää, Husman, 2008a). However, these approaches assume research samples are homogeneous and that findings would apply uniformly to employees in general (Meyer, Stanley, & Vandenberg, 2013b).

Moreover, variable-centered approaches do not characterize common profile-based patterns of how multiple dimensions of employee well-being may coexist or combine in qualitatively different subpopulations, or how the well-being relationships may meaningfully differ in subgroups (Bhullar, Hine, & Phillips, 2014; Morin, Morizot, Boudrias, & Madore, 2011; Wang, Sinclair, Zhou, & Sears, 2013). A person-centered approach can overcome these problems by identifying how employees can be clustered based on their response patterns to a set of well-being variables, thus generating typologies of employees with different patterns of responses and uncovering any unobserved heterogeneity of the employee population (Bhullar et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2013b; Wang & Hanges, 2011). A person-centered strategy not only provides new insights into the nature and implications of employee well-being, but also a more intuitive way for managers to understand well-being in terms of categories or types of employees (Van den Broeck, Lens, De Witte, & Van Coillie, 2013; Zyphur, 2009).

The *second objective* of the current study involved understanding how the well-being profiles were predicted by various personal and situational factors. In other words, I examined antecedents that may contribute to employees' response patterns or the development of their well-being profiles. I hypothesized that certain physical, organizational, and demographic characteristics would distinguish profile membership, including physical health perceptions, disease burden, health behaviors, body mass index, socioeconomic indicators (income, education and employment status), age, number of dependent children, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support (e.g., Adler & Stewart, 2010; Cerin, 2010; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). The mere identification of well-being profiles may not be actionable to the extent that it can sufficiently guide intervention efforts, especially if the antecedents of profile membership are not clearly understood (Meyer, Kam, Goldenberg, & Bremner, 2013a). These results are expected to provide insights into the mechanisms of how well-being profiles are developed and how they may be leveraged for practical purposes.

The *third objective* of the present study was to understand how profile membership can distinguish employees on health and work-related performance outcomes, including physical health perceptions, health behaviors, body mass index, job performance, work-related absenteeism and work-related presenteeism (e.g., Diener & Chan, 2011; Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007). The assessment of how profiles are meaningfully associated with important outcomes can help establish greater utility of the extracted profiles, and increase theoretical understanding of the nature of well-being and how different outcomes may emerge based on profile membership. Workplace wellness programs have been criticized for not targeting the actual needs of employees (e.g., Mattke et al., 2013). To address this problem, the current study identified groups of employees who were experiencing poor health or work-related performance. These findings can in turn assist employers/managers in tailoring well-being interventions to the needs of specific groups of employees (Van den Broeck et al., 2013).

The *fourth and last objective* of the current study involved determining the stability of employee well-being profiles over time. In response to multiple calls for moving beyond cross-sectional person-centered designs and delineating the stability of profile membership over time (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Busseri, Sadava, Molnar, & DeCourville, 2009; Feldt et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2013b; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011), the current study utilized longitudinal responses from employees to determine stability (or changes) in their well-being profiles over two time points. Past findings regarding the stability of individual well-being are mixed; some have found well-being to be stable across long periods of time, while others found significant variations over time (e.g., Mäkikangas, Kinnunen, Feldt, & Schaufeli, 2016; Rocke & Lachman, 2008). The current study examined whether and the manner in which employees transitioned between profiles over time, and investigated factors that influenced profile changes. These results can address questions regarding the dynamic nature of well-being. Furthermore, profile stability and transition patterns can inform practitioners of ways to encourage (prevent) movement toward profiles associated with positive (negative) outcomes.

In short, the current study (a) adopted a person-centered approach to identifying clusters of employees who shared similar response patterns to multiple facets of well-being, (b) examined personal and situational predictors of well-being profile membership, (c) investigated differences in health and work-related performance outcomes among the extracted well-being profiles, and (d) determined profile stability and transition patterns over time. These research objectives were examined using latent mixture modeling, specifically Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) and Latent Transition Analysis (LTA). Following recommendations provided by researchers conducting person-centered studies (Meyer et al., 2013b; Pastor, Barron, Miller, & Davis, 2007; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009), a large U.S. population-based dataset containing a broad and representative sample of employees was first used to conduct exploratory LPAs and determine the best-fitting profile solution. Two additional two-wave longitudinal employee samples from two different companies were then used to cross-validate the final profile solution, and test the hypotheses with respect to profile antecedents, outcomes, and stability.

CHAPTER TWO

WELL-BEING FROM A HOLISTIC PERSPECTIVE

Traditional views of health and well-being improvement often emphasize physical dimensions of health. However, as noted in the beginning of Chapter 1, well-being encompasses not only the absence of physical and mental illnesses, but also the presence of positive health and states of being which enable individuals to flourish and function optimally in their daily lives (Diener, 1994; Diener & Chan, 2011; Keyes, 2005, 2007; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Many empirical studies have, in fact, found that positive and negative states of being contribute to unique and independent effects (Diener & Chan, 2011; Huppert & Whittington, 2003; Richman et al., 2005). For example, Steptoe, Dockray and Wardle (2009) concluded that psychological well-being was explained by both the absence of depression or anxiety and the presence of positive affect. Additionally, a meta-analytic review found that negative well-being and positive well-being constructs predicted health outcomes differently, such that ill-being more strongly predicted short-term health outcomes (such as infections), and positive well-being more strongly predicted long-term health outcomes (such as cardiovascular outcomes; Howell, Kern, & Lyubomirsky, 2007).

Two principal approaches have dominated much of the well-being literature; they are the (a) hedonic perspective and the (b) eudaimonic perspective (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Hedonic well-being refers to enjoyment, pleasure, life satisfaction, and happiness; it is also more generally defined as the absence of negative affect and the presence of positive affect. Eudaimonic well-being, on the other hand, refers to the realization of one’s full potential and experiences of meaningfulness and psychological growth (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Diener & Chan, 2011).

In many past studies, hedonic forms of well-being are often conceptualized and measured as subjective well-being (SWB), which consists of several components: life satisfaction, domain-specific satisfaction (e.g., job satisfaction), positive affect, and the absence of negative affect (Diener, 2000; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). SWB has been linked with a number of important outcomes, including health, longevity, success in the workplace, job performance, and desirable social relationships (Diener & Chan, 2011; Diener, 2012; Kahneman & Krueger, 2006).

Eudaimonic well-being, on the other hand, is often defined and assessed in terms of human actualization. For example, Ryff and Keyes (1995) presented a multidimensional approach in their measurement of psychological well-being (PWB), including autonomy, personal growth, purpose in life, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, and self-acceptance (see also Ryff, 1995). Ryan and Deci’s (2000) self-determination theory also builds its premises around the concept of eudaimonia, such that the fulfillment of needs associated with autonomy, competence, and relatedness produce well-being through psychological growth and self-actualization (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Meta-analyses have supported both of these approaches – PWB and self-determination – in their connections with important health outcomes, including cardiovascular disease and other indices of mental and physical health (Boehm & Kubzansky, 2012; Ng et al., 2012), thus also supporting the importance of eudaimonic forms of well-being.

Even though hedonic and eudaimonic well-being may conceptually overlap and share underlying psychological mechanisms (e.g., Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008), theoretical reviews and empirical studies have supported their distinctiveness (e.g., Keyes & Annas, 2009; Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002; Lent, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Keyes, 1995), hence suggesting that "well-being is probably best conceived as a multidimensional phenomenon that includes aspects of both the hedonic and eudaimonic conceptions of well-being" (Ryan & Deci, 2001, p. 148). The importance of incorporating both well-being dimensions into a multidimensional interpretation is also echoed in the larger well-being literature (e.g., Gallagher, Lopez, & Preacher, 2009; Steptoe, Deaton, & Stone, 2015).

Well-being measures should also comprehensively represent different major aspects of life experience in order to capture an inclusive and accurate picture of a person's holistic well-being. Capturing a wide range of states of well-being can help researchers establish a greater understanding of how multiple dimensions of well-being overlap or independently contribute to health and other attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Diener & Chan, 2011). For example, Keyes (2007) suggested assessing emotional (e.g., positive affect), psychological (e.g., personal growth), and social (e.g., social integration) components in order to fully reflect well-being. Furthermore, Steptoe and his colleagues (2015) noted that both physical and psychological well-being indicators should be taken into account to fully understand one's complete health status.

However, many established measures of well-being in the existing literature do not include *both* hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives and/or do not capture major aspects of life experience (e.g., physical and psychological). For example, the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) developed by Diener and colleagues (1985) captures hedonic well-being through global life satisfaction, but it does not represent other hedonic feelings (e.g., positive affect or loneliness) or evaluations of life in eudaimonic terms. Ryff's PWB scale, on the other hand, captures well-being from the eudaimonic perspective only. In other words, PWB model components do not include affective evaluations. Moreover, Goldberg et al.'s (1987) General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) captures only mental well-being, but not other aspects of life experience such as physical, emotional, or social well-being. Depending on researchers' assessment goals and study objectives, these well-being measures may meet the needs for some studies but not others.

The current study sought to conceptualize well-being from a holistic perspective in order to capture a more accurate and inclusive picture of employee well-being. Following recommendations from well-being researchers, the current study utilized a well-being framework that comprehensively captures the construct of holistic well-being, with specific model components (a) representing both hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives, and (b) covering various major aspects of life experience. Specifically, the current study used the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 model because it satisfies both of these assessment goals. The Well-Being 5 was developed based on three previously validated well-being measures: Gallup-Healthways Well-Being Index, Well-Being Assessment and Well-Being Finder.

Well-Being Index, Well-Being Assessment, & Well-Being Finder

The Gallup-Healthways Well-Being Index (WBI) was first developed using a multidimensional approach to evaluate both hedonic and eudaimonic forms of well-being, which Gallup and Healthways label as experienced and evaluative well-being respectively (Gallup-Healthways, 2009). Specifically, experienced well-being refers to momentary affective states, and evaluative well-being refers to the cognitive evaluations of one's life experiences (Kahneman & Riis, 2005). Thus, the WBI instrument includes questions about positive and negative emotions (e.g., enjoyment and anger), daily experiences, and global judgments of life satisfaction. A rigorous process of survey development, pilot studies, expert judgments, and validation analyses resulted in six well-being domains: (a) life evaluation, (b) emotional health, (c) physical health, (d) healthy behavior, (e) work environment, and (f) basic access (Gallup-Healthways, 2009). These six domains altogether represent a higher-order construct of overall well-being, which is comprised of both global and domain-specific, and both experienced and evaluative, well-being dimensions (Gallup-Healthways, 2009; Evers et al., 2012).

The WBI has been validated and successfully implemented in various applied settings. WBI was originally designed to measure overall and element well-being scores at aggregated community levels (e.g., county, city, state, or region) in order to provide macro-level well-being information about different subpopulations (Sears et al., 2014). Even though the WBI indexes are comprehensive in representing well-being at a community level, they do not necessarily reflect all aspects of well-being, particularly those at the individual level, thus making it difficult to inform policy changes within an organization which aim to optimize well-being at the individual level (Gallup-Healthways, 2009; Sears et al., 2014). An adaptation of WBI – Healthways Well-Being Assessment (WBA) – was therefore developed to include individual-level well-being content, such as behavioral health risks, physical and psychological health, and individual productivity. As a result, WBA is a more comprehensive survey containing the WBI (6 well-being dimensions), a health-risk assessment, and validated productivity measures (Sears, Shi, Coberley, Pope, 2013). WBA was also designed and adapted specifically for use with employee populations (Gandy, Coberley, Pope, & Rula, 2014a; Shi, Sears, Coberley, & Pope, 2013a).

Multiple applied research studies have found evidence that the WBI and WBA can effectively capture employees' well-being, predict important outcomes, and provide actionable recommendations for well-being improvement.

Specifically, the WBI has been used to inform workplace intervention efforts. For example, Merrill and colleagues (2013) found that physical health (one of the WBI indices) was a better indicator of absenteeism than employee engagement, while employee engagement explained greater variance in job performance than physical health or healthy behaviors, thus suggesting that a holistic approach, including both employee health and engagement, would be important in addressing worker productivity problems. In addition, studies concluded that the WBI indices are valid program evaluation criteria and they can provide robust evidence for the effectiveness of workplace wellness programs (Merrill et al., 2011; Rajaratnam, Sears, Shi, Coberly, & Pope, 2014).

Other studies have also used WBA to examine the extent to which each well-being dimension can predict specific work-related outcomes. For example, Merrill and colleagues (2012) found that – among demographic characteristics, health behaviors, physical health, and workplace environmental factors – work-related environmental factors had the greatest contributions to on-the-job productivity loss (i.e., presenteeism). Gandy, Coberley, Pope, Wells, and Rula (2014b) obtained similar findings indicating that the WBA predicted employee productivity above and beyond chronic disease status and other demographic characteristics. Furthermore, Shi, Sears, Coberley and Pope (2013b) established WBA cut-off scores (also known as Individual Well-Being Score [IWBS]) to identify employee groups at risk for adverse health and work-related productivity outcomes. Gandy and colleagues (2014a) also found that WBA scores can predict more distal outcomes among employees, such as hospitalization and emergency room visits. The relationships between well-being and work-related and health outcomes are also established using longitudinal designs. Specifically, overall well-being (based on WBA instruments) predicted changes in health care outcomes (e.g., hospitalizations), productivity outcomes (e.g., presenteeism), retention outcomes (e.g., voluntary turnover), and supervisor-rated performance over one to two years later (Sears et al., 2013; Wu, Sears, Coberley, & Pope, 2016).

These studies provide empirical evidence that comprehensive well-being assessments, specifically the WBI and WBA, have substantial explanatory power with respect to health and work-related outcomes (in some cases over and above demographic characteristics and objective health/disease/illness statuses). It is likely because the WBI and WBA provide more complete perspectives of an array of psychosocial, physical, lifestyle, environmental, and social components experienced by every individual (Gandy et al., 2014). Hence, these findings further support the use of holistic well-being as the broader framework in assessing, understanding, and improving (or intervening with) employee health and work-related outcomes (e.g., performance and retention).

Concurrently, Gallup Well-Being Finder (WBF) was also developed to measure 5 elements of individual well-being: (a) career, (b) social, (c) financial, (d) physical, and (e) community, and provide individuals with intuitive and actionable feedback with regard to their well-being (Rath & Harter, 2010a;

2010b). The WBF has also been validated and linked with a range of important outcomes, including obesity status and disease burden (e.g., Agrawal & Harter, 2011; Harter & Agrawal, 2011). In addition, causal relationships have been established with business and health outcomes (e.g., employee turnover, depression, and sleep disorders; Harter & Agrawal, 2012).

The Well-Being 5

WBI, WBA, and WBF altogether have many strengths and can provide guidance to organizations in delivering individual- and organizational-level interventions. Each of these instruments can incrementally predict health and work-related outcomes and provide different types of knowledge about the well-being issues an organization faces. Sears and colleagues (2014), therefore, integrated the WBI, WBA, and WBF instruments into a single well-being measure and achieved five measurement objectives with the fewest necessary items. The measurement objectives were:

1. Comprehensively capture the overall construct of well-being,
2. Demonstrate strong evidence of construct validity and reliability,
3. Predict future health and individual functioning outcomes,
4. Provide diagnostic and actionable insights or feedback about well-being for intervention programs, and
5. Assess and track well-being across individual, organizational, community, national, and global levels of measurement.

Based on theoretical reasoning, past well-being research, and a three-step process of item reduction, factor analyses (both exploratory and confirmatory), and score validation (including criterion-related validity) using over 13,000 individuals across 3 independent samples (representing both employee and non-employee populations), Sears et al. (2014) concluded that the final indicators represented life experiences “pertaining to sense of purpose in daily life, social interactions and support structures, financial situation and hardships, and the perceived quality and involvement in one’s community” (p. 361) and various aspects of physical well-being (e.g., health behaviors, substance use, and health status).

These final indicators altogether represent 5 well-being elements: (a) purpose, (b) social, (c) financial, (d) community, and (e) physical, or also labeled as the Well-Being 5.

- *Purpose* reflects the extent to which individuals enjoy what they do and are motivated to achieve their goals;
- *Social* reflects interpersonal relations and having love in one’s life;
- *Financial* represents how well individuals manage their economic/financial life and how secure they feel about their financial situation;
- *Community* indicates the extent to which individuals like where they live, and feel safe and proud of their community; and

- *Physical* indicates whether individuals have good physiological health and enough energy to get things done daily, and engage in healthy lifestyle behaviors (Healthways, n.d.).

The overall Well-Being 5 score exhibited strong correlations (ranging from .82 to .95) with prior validated measures of well-being, specifically the IWBS score and the WBF score, thus providing strong evidence for convergent validity between the Well-Being 5 measure and previous validated well-being measures. The overall Well-Being 5 score also exhibited strong criterion-related validity based on significant correlations with health and work-related outcome measures, including job performance, absences from work, and prior hospitalization (Sears et al., 2014).

The Well-Being 5 is a holistic instrument that is rooted in prior well-being measures (i.e., WBI, WBA, and WBF) and has been validated to meet the five measurement objectives listed above (Sears et al., 2014). Not only does the Well-Being 5 provide valid and reliable measurements of multiple well-being dimensions, it also has significant relationships with objective outcomes and diagnostic capabilities for actionable research and interventions (Sears et al., 2014). It is a multidimensional predictive tool that can be used to measure, track, and manage well-being at different levels (e.g., individual, local, national, and global). In addition, it represents the full range of known well-being content based on 5 major aspects of life experience, and both experienced (hedonic) and evaluative (eudaimonic) well-being in a holistic manner (Kraatz, Sears, Coberley,

& Pope, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Sears et al., 2014). As organizations focus increasingly on employee health and wellness improvement and performance optimization, they can use the Well-Being 5 as a model framework to identify risks, problems, and opportunities regarding wellness program investments. Especially with items that are designed to assess well-being aspects that are malleable or under one's control, the Well-Being 5 can more effectively engage individuals in the holistic well-being tracking process and help organizations identify specific actions to improve employees' well-being (Healthways, n.d.).

For the theoretical and practical reasons described above, the current study utilized the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 theoretical framework and the Well-Being 5 survey instrument to assess employees' holistic well-being. The Well-Being 5 satisfies scientific and psychometric requirements in providing a comprehensive and accurate picture of individual holistic well-being. Also, it provides a practical means for organizations/employers to manage employee well-being and identify strategies to improve well-being, lower healthcare expenditures, and drive business performance. Findings regarding profiles using the Well-Being 5 dimensions, profile antecedents and profile outcomes can theoretically inform well-being research, and provide diagnostic and informative guidance for organizations interested in wellness-related programs or interventions.

CHAPTER THREE

UNDERSTANDING THE COMPLEXITY OF WELL-BEING: A PERSON-CENTERED APPROACH

To date, most studies of employee well-being have focused primarily on general and broad-level physical, psychological and/or mental well-being (e.g., Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010; Kuoppala et al., 2008a; McKee-Ryan, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). In occupational health psychology, most studies have investigated work-related antecedents of employee well-being, and to a lesser extent the work-related outcomes of employee well-being (e.g., Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Kuoppala, Lamminpää, Liira, & Vainio, 2008b; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Much less attention has been given to well-being dimensions that are narrower in scope (e.g., Well-Being 5, WBI, and WBF), and how multiple well-being dimensions function concurrently in affecting outcomes among employees.

In order to more thoroughly examine employee well-being and understand the practical implications for employee well-being improvement, Chapter 2 discussed the reasons a holistic and multidimensional approach to well-being assessment is necessary and the Well-Being 5 is appropriate. The study of multidimensional well-being can be complex considering how individuals experience various dimensions of well-being simultaneously at any given time. Individuals may also experience different combinations of well-being dimensions, and these configurations may represent interesting synergistic effects (Delery &

Doty, 1996). However, much of the research thus far does not capture the co-occurrence of multidimensional well-being, and how the co-occurrences develop (i.e., antecedents) and affect outcomes.

To effectively account for this type of complexity and examine interactions among different well-being dimensions, there is a need to move beyond traditional methodologies and analytical procedures (e.g., variable-centered approach; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). Recent theoretical and analytical advancements suggest that a person-centered, or configural, approach can capture the complexity of multidimensional well-being as a holistic construct and uncover the complex and concurrent relationships among various facets of well-being (Chen, 2012; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). In fact, person-centered analytical strategies (e.g., cluster analysis, latent profile analysis) are receiving growing attention in the organizational sciences (Meyer et al., 2013b) and are viewed as a complement to variable-centered approaches (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Vandanberg & Stanley, 2009; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Zyphur, 2009).

Variable-Centered Approaches

Variable-centered approaches, such as ANOVA, regression analyses, and structural equation modeling, have dominated the past few decades of applied psychology (Morin et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013). Most studies rely on these approaches to test the interrelatedness between constructs and examine the underlying processes that may explain the relationships. Even though variable-centered approaches are useful in answering research questions with regard to whether and how variables are related to each other, the results usually represent an average estimate of the observed relations within a sample "without systematically considering the possibility that these relationships may meaningfully differ in subgroups of participants" (Morin et al., 2011, p. 59). In other words, variable-centered analyses are limited in examining whether individuals are from qualitatively different subpopulations, and how those subpopulations may differ from each other in relation to other variables (Wang et al., 2013). In organizational studies, variable-centered analyses tend to assume that all employees are sampled from a single population (i.e., population homogeneity assumption), this assumption also leads researchers to assume that the same theoretical propositions and empirical evidence can uniformly apply to all employees in general (Bravo, Boothe, & Pearson, 2016a; Collins & Lanza, 2010; Meyer et al., 2013b).

Organizational researchers have examined the existence of subgroups and how variables of interest may function differently within these subgroups. Variable-centered analyses, specifically interactions (or moderations), have been commonly used to test subgroup hypotheses and model co-occurrences of constructs. For example, Kausto, Elo, Lipponen, and Elovainio (2005) found gender-specific effects of procedural justice and job insecurity on employee well-being. In addition, Snape and Redman (2003) tested the co-occurrence of normative and continuance commitment mindsets. They found that the negative effects of normative commitment on withdrawal cognitions were significant only at low levels of continuance commitment, thus suggesting that the two commitment mindsets were substitutes in affecting withdrawal outcomes.

Even though interaction findings may imply the existence of subgroups, they fail to identify the groups per se, and, in a variable-centered approach, group membership cannot be transformed into an observed or latent variable for additional hypothesis testing (Meyer et al., 2013b). Also, the capabilities of variable-centered analytical techniques are usually limited in detecting complex interactions consisting of more than two variables (e.g., low statistical power, Aguinis & Gottfredson, 2010; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). In fact, to date, only one out of many three-component commitment studies had been able to detect a three-way interaction among the three commitment components (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Meyer et al., 2013b). The detection of interactions among four or more components can be even more challenging (Meyer et al., 2013b; Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin et al., 2011).

A person-centered approach can overcome these limitations associated with variable-centered strategies. Specifically in organizational sciences, the commitment literature has recently shifted much of its attention from the variables themselves to person-centered approaches in testing the configurations of commitment mindsets and foci via the identification of profiles.

Person-Centered Approaches

Taking into account the limitations of variable-centered approaches to testing the co-occurrence of constructs, the current study adopted a person-centered approach to testing the configurations of the Well-Being 5 dimensions among employees. I also examined the predictors of these well-being configurations, and the concurrent influence of multidimensional well-being on outcomes. There are several other advantages to a person-centered approach. First, it can identify specific combinations of well-being that are optimal or suboptimal among employees. A certain type of well-being profile may be related to the most favorable health and work-related outcomes. Second, it analyzes and determines the nature and prevalence of clusters (profiles), and provides profile membership information for targeted interventions, especially those designed for employees in profiles related to poorer health and other negative outcomes. Finally, research findings regarding profiles are usually more intuitive to managers who may not have received training in statistics, because profile-based results can be interpreted in terms of typologies or categories of people (who are grouped based on their similar responses/attributes), instead of intricate associations between variables (Meyer et al., 2013b; Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen, & Wright, 2005; Van den Broeck et al., 2013).

Person-centered or configural approaches aim to identify and describe clusters of individuals who share similar attributes or response patterns to a set of items (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; Wang & Hanges, 2011). They are appropriate for classifying and comparing qualitatively different subpopulations, and the various patterns of co-occurrence are commonly referred to as "profiles" (Wang et al., 2013). In comparison to variable-centered approaches, person-centered approaches assume that the co-occurrence of multiple variables exist within subgroups, and that subgroups differ from each other in the interrelatedness or configurations of these variables. In short, while variable-centered approaches focus on the relationships between variables, person-centered approaches focus on identifying a typology with different types of individuals with similar response patterns. In other words, both approaches seek to decompose variances between observed indicators, but they provide different perspectives and insights into the relationships between the indicators.

In variable-centered tests of interactions, it is assumed that all combinations are possible between different levels of a set of variables. However, it is often the case in person-centered studies that some combinations are more plausible than others, while some may be highly implausible (e.g., cognitive inconsistency; Sinclair et al., 2005). Therefore, person-centered analyses can more accurately identify the likely patterns of responses and examine the prevalence of each profile. Additionally, researchers using variable-centered tests of interactions often focus on high and low scores of the variables of interest; they may therefore miss important information or individuals/groups with moderate scores.

There are different data analytic strategies commonly used in person-centered research. Recent methodological advancements have allowed researchers to increase the sophistication of person-centered research as they begin to move from conventional methods (e.g., median split techniques and cluster analysis) to contemporary applications of mixture modeling (e.g., latent profile analysis and latent transition analysis; Meyer et al., 2013b; Wang et al., 2013).

Median Split Techniques

Median split techniques involve splitting a sample at the median to determine who falls under the "high" and "low" categories. Those who fall above the median are categorized as "high" and those who fall below the median are categorized as "low." For example, a study with two factors using median split procedures can categorize participants into four distinct profiles. Upon sample categorization, profile differences in outcome variables can be tested using ANOVAs (Pastor et al., 2007). Wood and Joseph (2010) used a similar technique by splitting responses to PWB items into tertiles, such that individuals at the highest tertile are considered as normal PWB functioning, while medium tertile indicates slightly impaired PWB and the lowest tertile reflects low PWB.

One of the major limitations of median split techniques is related to its dependence on sample medians, especially because medians can vary substantially across samples, thus rendering comparisons across studies difficult. In fact, the medians are often arbitrary cutoffs that are not theoretically applicable or meaningful (Kim, Wang, Orozco-Lapray, Shen, & Murtuza, 2013). Also, the artificial classification based on placing an equal number of individuals into each profile may not accurately reflect the actual prevalence of each profile. Participants may be misclassified and findings may inaccurately inform theoretical developments. Relatedly, dichotomizing continuous variables into "high" and "low" values would assume (often questionable) homogeneity of all cases above and below the median (Pastor et al. 2007). It would also mask the underlying meaning and variances of responses based on the response scales used to gather them (e.g., 7-point Likert scale; Wang et al., 2013).

Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis is an exploratory technique used to classify individuals into homogeneous subgroups or typologies. Clusters are defined such that within-cluster differences are minimized and between-cluster differences are maximized (Pastor et al., 2007; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). There are various cluster analysis methods, including hierarchical cluster analysis (e.g., Ward's method) and *K* means cluster analysis. For example, a study of health and well-being profiles first used hierarchical cluster analysis to identify the clusters, and applied the centroid values from the hierarchical analyses as the initial seed values in a *K* means confirmatory cluster analysis to validate the final cluster solution (Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011).

Two of the major limitations of cluster analysis are (a) subjectivity and (b) data-driven. Determining the appropriate number of clusters relies heavily on researchers' subjective judgments, and unfortunately there is a lack of rigorous guidelines to reduce subjectivity (Pastor et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2013). Additionally, cluster analysis is highly data-driven and exploratory; because it is not model-based, researchers cannot specify parameters based on theoretical reasoning, thus often leading to “dustbowl empiricism” (Wang & Hanges, 2011). Researchers are beginning to move beyond traditional cluster analytic techniques toward model-based techniques, such as latent profile analysis (LPA), which can overcome the limitations associated with median split and cluster analytic techniques and provide some additional advantages.

Latent Profile Analysis

The current study used latent profile analyses (LPA) to identify subgroups that share a common configuration, or profile, with regard to multiple well-being dimensions. LPA shares a similar objective as cluster analysis: to identify clusters of observations with similar responses to a number of categorical or continuous indicators. LPA is a latent variable modeling technique, its primary difference from variable-centered factor analysis is that the estimated latent variable is categorical for LPA and continuous for factor analysis. In addition, whereas factor analysis regroups variables into factors based on item-level correlations, LPA regroups individuals into profiles based on *patterns* of responses to a set of items. More specifically, factor analysis decomposes the co-variances to determine the relationships among the indicators, and LPA decomposes the co-variances to identify relationships among persons (Bauer & Curran, 2004; Morin & Marsh, 2015). Thus, LPA results in a categorical latent profile variable that groups individuals with similar latent profiles across multiple continuous indicators; the profiles are latent because they are not directly measured or observed (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Zyphur, 2009).

LPA is also known as mixture modeling, because it models a "mixture" of qualitatively different subgroups within a population. Person-centered models are expected to follow a mixture distribution because the population is assumed to consist of distinct subgroups (or profiles), and the analyses should "unmix" the population into a number of homogeneous subgroups, which are identified based on the similarities in response patterns (Geiser, 2013). Unlike variable-centered techniques, mixture models can identify unobserved heterogeneity in a population and uncover meaningful groups (i.e., latent profiles) with similar responses to measured (observed) variables (Lubke & Muthén, 2005; Nylund, Asparouhov, & Muthén, 2007; Wang & Hanges, 2011). Moreover, LPA can identify unobserved profiles and treat profile membership as an observed or latent variable that can be used as a predictor, mediator, moderator or outcome in subsequent analyses (Bravo et al., 2016a; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

In addition to extracting profiles and classifying individuals into different profiles, LPA also estimates the mean responses for each indicator within each profile and, based on estimated model parameters, computes posterior probabilities with which each person belongs to each of the profiles (Lubke & Muthén, 2005; Wang & Hanges, 2011). These resulting (continuous) variables are often more fine-grained than profile membership (nominal) variables; they can also be used to estimate additional models with other variables of interest (e.g., the extent to which posterior profile probabilities predict health outcomes).

In general, LPA is more flexible and much less restrictive than other clustering methods because it does not require certain statistical assumptions to be met (e.g., linearity, normal distribution, and homogeneity of variance; Morrow-Howell et al., 2015). Also, LPA can overcome the limitations of median split and traditional cluster analytic techniques largely because LPA is a model-based technique that allows direct specification and comparisons of alternative models (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Zyphur, 2009). Whereas traditional cluster analysis techniques use arbitrary and sample-specific classification criteria, LPA uses the maximum likelihood method to estimate model parameters and statistical goodness-of-fit indices (e.g., Bayesian Information Criterion [BIC], bootstrapped likelihood ratio test), which can then be used to rigorously compare various latent mixture models and determine a final best-fitting profile solution (Nylund et al., 2007; Pastor et al., 2007; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Wang et al., 2013). LPA also follows a probabilistic classification approach – even though individuals are assumed to belong to certain profiles, the uncertainty regarding profile membership is taken into account. As such, each person's posterior probabilities for membership in each profile are estimated and can be used to account for the classification accuracy and validity in subsequent analyses (Bravo et al., 2016a; Pastor et al., 2007; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

Further, unlike traditional cluster analytic techniques, model-based LPA supports theory-driven *a priori* specifications of various latent profile parameters (e.g., means, variances, co-variances, and thresholds), thus allowing more meaningful tests of theories and specific research questions. Similar to variable-centered factor analyses, LPA can be used for both exploratory and confirmatory applications (Wang & Hanges, 2011). If there are no known theoretically-driven latent profiles, a series of exploratory LPA studies can be used to inform and statistically identify naturally occurring homogeneous latent groups that differ on the profile indicators (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). Researchers can thus gain a theoretical understanding of how different indicators co-occur across different samples (e.g., similar profiles), and inform future studies on how models can be anchored in a clear theoretical rationale. Confirmatory and theory-driven LPA can therefore continue to drive theoretical advancements and reduce dustbowl empiricism (Meyer et al., 2013b; Morin & Marsh, 2015; Muthén, 2003).

A Person-Centered Approach to Well-Being

In organizational sciences, researchers have begun to acknowledge the relative advantages of a person-centered approach over traditional variable-centered techniques (e.g., Meyer et al., 2013b; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; Wang et al., 2013; Wang & Hanges, 2011; Zyphur, 2009). A majority of person-centered organizational studies tested the commitment theory which consists of multiple components (affective, normative and continuance) directed at multiple foci (e.g., career, supervisor, organization, occupation) of commitment. The various ways these components and foci can combine and co-occur are best captured by person-centered analyses, through which distinct commitment profiles (or subgroups) with common configurations of mindsets and/or targets are identified, as well as profile antecedents and outcomes (e.g., Meyer, Morin, & Vandenberghe, 2015; Morin et al., 2011; Morin, Meyer, McInerney, Marsh, & Ganotice, 2015; Sinclair et al., 2005; Somers, 2009).

Organizational researchers have also adopted a person-centered perspective in identifying subgroups in other areas, such worker motivational profiles (e.g., Van den Broeck et al., 2013), profiles of effort-reward imbalance and over-commitment (e.g., Feldt et al., 2013), emotional labor profiles (e.g., Cheung & Lun, 2015; Gabriel, Daniels, Diefendorff, & Greguras, 2015), profiles of perceived organizational values (e.g., Colley, Lincolne, & Neal, 2013), and typologies of work-family balance (e.g., Rantanen, Kinnunen, Mauno, & Tement, 2013).

To date, profiles among employees indicating common configurations of their responses toward multidimensional well-being have not been examined. In fact, employee well-being has typically been treated as an outcome of clusters or latent profiles (e.g., Feldt et al., 2013; Morin et al., 2015; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). The person-centered strategy is also gaining currency in other areas of psychology. Similarly, well-being (e.g., PWB and SWB) is also often treated as an outcome of profiles, such as rumination profiles (Graf, Ramsey, Patrick, & Gentzler, 2015), religiosity profiles (Bravo, Pearson, & Stevens, 2016b), mindfulness profiles (Bravo et al., 2016a), mentoring profiles (Hurd & Zimmerman, 2014), and profiles of time-use (Hunt, McKay, Dahly, Fitzgerald, & Perry, 2015).

Although well-being profiles have not been examined in employee samples, a few variations of them have been identified in other populations such as young children, college students, community adults, and elders (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Busseri et al., 2009; Compagnone & Strayer, 2004; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). These well-being profile studies (some of them are reviewed below) used diverse definitions of well-being, and vastly different health and well-being measures as profile indicators. They also used different analytical strategies that may have contributed partially to the heterogeneity in findings. For example, while some studies used cluster analysis (e.g., Busseri et al., 2009; Thøgersen-Ntouman et al., 2011), others used the median-split technique (e.g., Wood & Joseph, 2010) and latent profile analysis (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Chen, 2012). Overall, these studies support the use of person-centered analyses to capture the multidimensionality of well-being. They also provide important insights about the directions future studies can take to strengthen the examination of well-being typologies, factors distinguishing profile membership, as well as profile outcomes.

In a study of Internet use and PWB profiles, Chen (2012) established four latent profiles based on indicators assessing negative attitudes, performance difficulty, somatic elements, social loneliness, emotional loneliness, and self-esteem. These indicators were selected and combined to conceptualize PWB as a holistic latent construct (Chen, 2012). The latent profiles were: (a) good PWB, (b) normative, (c) minor-disadvantageous, and (d) severe-disadvantageous.

Chen (2012) found that problematic Internet use significantly predicted PWB profile membership. Profile stability was also examined based on latent profiles established in the following two years. Due to reasons such as college adaptation, Chen (2012) argued that PWB profile instability among college students was within reason.

In another PWB profile study of university students, Bhullar and colleagues (2014) used Ryff's six indices of PWB as multidimensional profile indicators. LPA was used to generate profile typologies on the six PWB markers. The final five-profile solution represented groups with very low, low, moderate, high, and very high PWB. Bhullar et al.'s (2014) profiles significantly predicted students' depression; those in lower functioning PWB profiles were found to have higher levels of depression. Similarly, Wood and Joseph's (2010) findings indicated that individuals in the low PWB profile were more likely to be depressed 10 years later, even after controlling for common confounding factors such as negative functioning, physical health, personality, demographic and economic factors, and prior depression. This strongly suggests that an absence of PWB is a crucial risk factor in developing depression.

In a sample of older adults, Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al. (2011) identified four health and well-being typologies using indicators of body mass index, self-reported health, overall functional limitations, health conditions, and depression. The four clusters were (a) good health and moderate functioning, (b) moderate health and functioning, (c) obese and depressed, and (d) low health and functioning. These clusters demonstrated population heterogeneity with regard to the complexity and co-existence of health conditions, physical functioning, and psychological functioning. These clusters also differed in self-esteem, life satisfaction, social isolation, and health behaviors (e.g., alcohol consumption).

Following Diener's (1984) three-component model of SWB, Busseri and colleagues (2009) examined the configurations of three hedonic forms of well-being: life satisfaction (LS), positive affect (PA), and negative affect (NA). Five distinct SWB profiles were validated across two samples: (a) high SWB (high LS, frequent PA and infrequent NA), (b) low affect (moderate LS, moderate to low PA, and low NA), (c) high NA (moderate LS and PA, high NA), (d) low affective well-being (moderate LS, low PA, and high NA), and (e) low SWB (low LS, low PA and high NA). These profiles successfully distinguished individuals on mental health, physical health, and interpersonal functioning.

Additionally, in an investigation of the extent to which motivational and personality variables were related to distinct patterns of well-being and stress among athletes, Lundqvist and Raglin (2015) identified three distinct well-being and stress profiles using indicators of hedonic well-being (i.e., positive and negative affect, life satisfaction), eudaimonic well-being (i.e., Ryff's PWB dimensions), and perceived stress. The three profiles were: (a) lower well-being/higher stress, (b) higher well-being/lower stress, and (c) moderate well-being/moderate stress.

These studies of well-being profiles clearly indicate a non-uniform definition of well-being. While some studies followed established definitions of SWB and PWB (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Busseri et al., 2009), others combined various measures as holistic well-being based on different definitions and conceptualizations in the literature (e.g., Chen, 2012; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). This challenges any attempt to compare well-being profiles across studies, and hinders theoretical developments in this area. In fact, apart from Busseri et al.'s (2009) study, which established hypotheses based on Diener's three-dimensional model of SWB, many of these person-centered well-being studies did not have *a priori* theoretical expectations with regard to how profiles (i.e., patterns of responses) would emerge. Because these studies used different indicators for profile analyses, it is not possible to generalize findings or cross-validate these studies to establish common profiles and formulate substantive theory explaining the mechanisms of well-being profiles. Moreover, the scarcity of person-centered well-being studies suggests that well-being profile research is still in its infancy. Apart from calling for additional person-centered research on well-being, a uniform definition and measure of holistic well-being is necessary to turn exploratory endeavors into theory development, and eventually guide subsequent confirmatory studies (Muthén, 2003).

Another source of difficulty in cross-study comparisons of well-being profiles is related to the fact that some studies found only level differences between profiles (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Chen, 2012; Wood & Joseph, 2010), and others found both level and shape differences between profiles (e.g., Busseri et al., 2009; Lundqvist & Raglin, 2015; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). Level differences between profiles occur “when the relative strength of all variables within a system differs across groups”, and shape differences occur “when the hierarchical ordering of the scores on this set of variables is different for some groups than it is for others” (Meyer et al., 2013b, p. 194). For example, in Bhullar et al.’s (2014) PWB profiles, very high PWB profile had the highest scores on all indicators, and very low PWB profile had the lowest scores on all indicators; in order words, there were only level differences between these two profiles. However, in Busseri et al.’s (2009) profiles, there were shape differences in the levels of LS, PA and NA, such that (for example) one group had moderate LS, low PA, and low NA (low affect), and the other had moderate LS, moderate PA and high NA (high NA).

Although the profile groups may still differ in their variances and co-variances among the indicators, there may be little advantage to a person-centered approach if only level differences were expected or found (Bauer, 2007; Meyer et al., 2013b). In fact, Morin and Marsh (2015) contended that “the need to observe qualitative shape differences between the extracted profiles does seem to reflect an important prerequisite” to person-centered analyses (p. 41). Shape differences between profiles provide added value to profile analyses because they present distinct patterns of responses that are usually theoretically more meaningful than findings regarding how individuals differ from one another on their overall levels/scores in a set of items (i.e., level differences). In a way, level effects can be construed as main effects, while shape effects can be interpreted as interaction effects (Morin & Marsh, 2015). Person-centered analyses are particularly advantageous when shape effects are expected to explain a certain degree of variability; they can effectively uncover the patterns of responses (i.e., shape) or interactions among multiple variables. Without clear shape differences, level differences are probably best captured by variable-centered analyses, such as continuous latent factors, rather than categorical latent profiles (Morin & Marsh, 2015).

Finding only level differences may limit the meaningfulness and practical utility of profiles. One of the reasons only level differences were found in prior well-being profile studies is possibly the high correlations or overlaps between profile indicators. For example, Ryff's six PWB dimensions are highly related and they reflect a higher-order PWB construct (e.g., Ryff & Keyes, 1995), hence it is improbable for negative associations to occur between PWB dimensions. In addition, using only PWB or SWB dimensions do not adequately reflect a holistic well-being construct (recall Chapter 2's discussion on hedonic and eudaimonic forms well-being), some studies have thus fallen short of capturing holistic well-being and representing multidimensional well-being.

To more fully capture a holistic well-being construct and the configurations among multiple well-being dimensions, the current study used the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 model components to perform profile analyses. As noted in Chapter 2, the Well-Being 5 is a validated and holistic assessment of five dimensions of well-being, which includes major areas of one's life and both hedonic and eudaimonic forms of well-being. It is my hope that findings from this study can inform future studies of how well-being profiles may emerge, and encourage the use of a holistic measure with representative dimensions (e.g., the Well-Being 5) to more accurately examine the complexity of well-being and the co-occurrence of multidimensional well-being.

CHAPTER FOUR

STUDY HYPOTHESES

The current study sought to identify well-being profiles, examine the mechanisms and consequences involved in the process, and investigate profile stability over time. The first study objective was to identify common response patterns (profiles) toward multidimensional well-being items in order to gain a deeper understanding of how different clusters of individuals experience multiple facets of well-being simultaneously. One of the many advantages of a person-centered approach lies in the researcher's ability to use the resulting profile membership (and probabilities) variables as predictors, outcome variables, moderators or mediators in subsequent analyses (Meyer et al., 2013b; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009). Therefore, the current study also examined the antecedents and consequences of well-being profiles in order to understand their mechanisms and implications respectively. These findings will provide insights into interesting theoretical and practical possibilities. To date, the small body of person-centered well-being research has largely been cross-sectional. The current study therefore used two-wave longitudinal responses to test changes in well-being profile membership over time, and link the profile movements to several variables of interest. Appendix A contains a list of all study hypotheses and research questions.

Well-Being Profiles: A Semi-Inductive Approach

Researchers interested in configural approaches emphasized the need for substantive theories on the phenomena of interest to guide the use of person-centered analysis and predictions of meaningful profiles (Morin & Marsh, 2015; Wang et al., 2013). Even though theoretically-driven profiles are often viewed as more ideal than data-driven profiles, researchers have argued that a series of informed exploratory studies is sometimes needed to gain confidence and knowledge about how different phenomena naturally co-occur (Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009).

When little theory exists to fully account for the full range of possible combinations, researchers suggested using exploratory person-centered approaches to explore groups of individuals sharing similar response patterns, and use these exploratory results to guide theory development and subsequent confirmatory tests (Meyer et al., 2013b; Muthén, 2003). Moreover, researchers should not discount the merits of a data-driven approach because it can bring novel and useful findings into light (Mun, Bates, & Vaschillo, 2010). In fact, in organizational psychology, there have been recent calls for more inductive research to explore new ways of thinking and novel bases for theory generation (Locke, 2007; Spector, Rogelberg, Ryan, Schmitt, & Zedeck, 2014). Locke (2007) argued that theoretical concepts should be formed inductively to reflect what we witness in reality. Deductive methods may limit theory building because they are constrained to certain foundational arguments and in turn may limit applications to new situations. In fact, without inductive observations and evidence, theories may not sufficiently account for the occurrences in reality and may lead to problems concerning replicability.

As discussed in Chapter 3, well-being profile research is sparse, and the heterogeneity of well-being measures and profiles in previous studies precludes meaningful comparisons. Additionally, these past studies were limited with regard to the scope of their samples (e.g., using only college students) and well-being measures (e.g., using only Ryff's PWB dimensions). The current study overcame some of these limitations by (a) using a U.S. population-based dataset with responses collected from employees, and (b) utilizing the Well-Being 5 model components as a holistic and multidimensional assessment of well-being.

Given that well-being profile research is still in its infancy, theoretical mechanisms explicating the co-occurrence of multidimensional well-being are unclear. Efforts to gather a body of empirical evidence are necessary in order to build a solid theory surrounding well-being profiles. Once inductive theory building has occurred, future studies can make deductions from the theory (e.g., hypothesis testing) and apply them to new contexts and/or new populations. Researchers can, then, go back and forth between induction and deduction so that the said theory can be revised and enhanced accordingly (Locke, 2007). Therefore, the current study adopted a *semi-inductive approach* to identify profile groups with respect to multidimensional well-being.

A semi-inductive approach heeds calls from proponents of both (a) deductive theory-driven hypotheses (e.g., Morin & Marsh, 2015; Wang et al.,

2013) and (b) inductive research (e.g., Locke, 2007; Spector et al., 2014). A balance between deduction and induction can minimize constraints of hypothesis tests and uncover natural and realistic occurrences in applied settings (Spector et al., 2014). Specifically, on one hand, the current study drew upon previous studies of well-being profiles to determine if hypotheses can be developed based on any common level and/or shape differences among profile groups. On the other hand, the hypothesized profiles were not expected to fully represent all possible combinations of well-being dimensions. Other forms of naturally occurring profiles may emerge and serve as the basis for theory advancement (e.g., Feldt et al., 2013; Meyer et al., 2013b; Van den Broeck et al., 2013). These findings will increase conceptual knowledge of how the well-being dimensions combine and will serve as a step toward establishing theoretically meaningful explanations for well-being profiles.

Physical versus Psychosocial Dimensions of Health and Well-Being

The temporal or causal relationship between physical and psychological dimensions of health, functioning and/or well-being is unclear. In fact, causal influence has often been assumed but not well-demonstrated. Many studies have measured physical and psychological indicators of health and well-being in cross-sectional designs and simply obtained concurrent associations between the two (e.g., Benros, Eaton, & Mortensen, 2014; Koyanagi & Stickley, 2014; Shimazu & de Jonge, 2009; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). In biomedical terms, physical and psychological illnesses are often framed as cases of comorbidity (e.g., McCarthy, 2014). Efforts have been made aiming to establish causality, but the findings remain mixed. Whereas some studies found that physical health/limitations strongly predicted changes in mental disorders or mental well-being (e.g., Gayman, Turner, & Cui, 2008; Olsen, Øverland, Reme, & Løvvik, 2015; Windle, 2014), others found psychological health or strain as a robust predictor of physical illnesses (e.g., Bailey, Dollard, McLinton, & Richards, 2015; Wang et al., 2014). These mixed results strongly suggest that physical and psychological dimensions of health exert reciprocal effects over time (Aneshensel, Frerichs, & Huba, 1984; Steptoe et al., 2015). That is, a two-way relation exists between physical and psychological aspects of health and well-being. For example, poor health can impair subjective well-being, while high subjective well-being can enhance physical health functioning (Steptoe et al., 2015).

There are at least a few distinct pathways in which physical health impairments can cause psychological or mental health (Goldberg, 2010). For example, if individuals experience physical pain or discomfort, it can cause emotional distress and poor sleep quality. Also, chronic physical illnesses can be depressing if they also carry the risks of disability that would disrupt daily functioning. In physiological terms, physical changes can cause mental strain through changes in one's allostatic load (or allostasis), because the ability of one's body to adapt to stressful conditions may be undermined.

On the other hand, psychological states can precede physical health changes through different underlying processes (e.g., biological and behavioral; Steptoe, 2006). For example, psychosocial stress factors can increase circulating inflammatory markers and thus increase the risks for cardiovascular diseases and other health conditions (Steptoe, Hamer, & Chida, 2007). Stress-related psychosocial factors can also promote high-risk behaviors, such as smoking, lack of exercise, alcohol consumption, or poor diet, and subsequently contribute to the development and progression of physical illnesses (Chida, Hamer, Wardle, & Steptoe, 2008). Psychological traits such as stress-prone personality or maladaptive coping styles may also worsen one's physical health via physiological and/or behavioral mechanisms, such as increased stress hormones and risky behaviors (Chida et al., 2008). Not only do negative psychological factors cause physiological changes, positive psychosocial experiences can serve as a protective factor for physical health (Chida & Steptoe, 2008; Steptoe et al., 2009; 2015). For example, positive affective states and positive dispositions can improve individuals' treatment adherence and adaptation to physical illnesses.

Physical and psychological aspects of health and well-being are apparently intimately linked. Strong evidence exists elucidating a bi-directional and non-recursive relationship (Kolappa, Henderson, & Kishore, 2013). Even though causality cannot be clearly inferred, researchers can at least conclude that these two dimensions of health and well-being do not simply occur concurrently. The current study, therefore, focused on psychosocial well-being dimensions in developing and testing profiles, and examined physical well-being as both a predictor and an outcome of profile membership. Specifically, I used (a) purpose, (b) social, (c) financial, and (d) community well-being dimensions to establish psychosocial well-being profiles, and subsequently used longitudinal responses to test the bi-directional relationships between psychosocial well-being profiles and physical well-being.

Based on prior evidence, the current study excluded physical well-being from profile analyses in order to more accurately test the bi-directionality of its relationship with psychosocial well-being without assuming their co-occurrence. Using both physical and psychosocial variables in profile analyses would inhibit researchers' ability to disentangle the causal relation between the two (e.g., Compagnone & Strayer, 2004; Ko, Berg, Butner, Uchino, & Smith, 2007). Current study findings can inform researchers' continuous efforts in understanding the reciprocal nature and predictive strength between physical and psychosocial dimensions of health and well-being. Moreover, these findings can potentially identify modifiable characteristics that can be targeted in wellness interventions (Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). For example, if psychosocial well-being is found to be more predictive of physical health than vice versa, intervention programs may be targeted at enhancing psychological states instead of physical functioning (e.g., Chida & Steptoe, 2008).

An emphasis on the psychosocial dimensions of well-being would also allow for more parsimonious profile solutions to emerge. Gallup-Healthways validation studies of the Well-Being 5 framework concluded that purpose, social, financial, and community well-being components are interrelated and reflective constructs, while physical well-being emerged as a formative construct that is made up of multiple independent indicators (e.g., physical functioning, physical health perceptions, disease burden, health behaviors, substance use; Kraatz et al., 2016; Sears et al., 2014). Incorporating all of the independent indicators of physical well-being and the other four psychosocial well-being components would result in a larger number of possible profiles. As the number of profiles increases, the clarity and practical utility of extracted profiles may be reduced, and it becomes increasingly difficult to make theoretically defensible explanations about the differences between profiles (Wang et al., 2013). Therefore, physical well-being dimensions were not used as part of the profile analyses, and were instead examined as both predictors and outcomes of psychosocial well-being profiles.

Hypothesized Well-Being Profiles

Because of the semi-inductive nature of the current study, I did not formulate firm hypotheses concerning the number of naturally occurring subgroups with regard to the psychosocial dimensions of well-being. Instead, I hypothesized several specific well-being profiles (or response patterns) based on previous person-centered studies in well-being. Following the semi-inductive approach, the current study expected other non-hypothesized profiles to emerge.

These profiles will provide insights into how subgroups naturally occur and advance theoretical understanding of well-being profiles. To address generalizability concerns raised by researchers (Pastor et al., 2007; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; Wang et al., 2013), the current study first conducted a series of exploratory LPAs in a large U.S. population-based sample of employees, and cross-validated the profile solution using two separate samples of employees from two different organizations.

The objective of person-centered research is to identify clusters of individuals that differ meaningfully with regard to the complex combinations (or co-occurrence) of variables. To maximize the value of a person-centered approach and the utility of current study findings, the hypothesized profiles would differ in *shape* as well as in *level* (Marsh, Lüdtke, Trautwein, & Morin, 2009; Meyer et al., 2013b; Morin & Marsh, 2015). Showing only level differences (i.e., profiles differ on high versus low levels when all variables are considered) would offer little advantage to taking a person-centered approach.

Following recommendations from Wang and colleagues (2013), each well-being component was distinguished between high, moderate, and low values, as opposed to simply being dichotomized into high or low scores. This is important because profile studies often obtain groups with scores falling approximately on the mid-point of a Likert scale (e.g., Lundqvist & Raglin, 2015; Meyer et al., 2015; Sinclair et al., 2005). This suggests that some individuals may be ambivalent or neutral about their perceptions or feelings; their ambivalence may be theoretically significant and meaningfully related to other variables of interest (Wang et al., 2013).

Similar to other person-centered studies (e.g., Meyer et al., 2015), moderate value refers to the sample average. Profile intercepts can be transformed into standardized z-scores to understand the extent to which each subgroup deviates from the average in each well-being dimension. Wang and colleagues (2013) argued that sample-specific means can be problematic because they might not generalize across samples. The current study addressed this concern by using a large U.S. population-based employee sample so that the sample distribution of well-being scores should theoretically be comparable to the employee population distribution.

Despite the variability across studies, previous studies of PWB profiles (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Chen, 2012; Wood & Joseph, 2010) consistently found profiles with level differences. Specifically, researchers found ordered profile groups, ranging from low, medium, and high scores on all profile indicators, indicated by the incremental increases in the levels of the indices. The consistent emergence of these ordered profiles suggests that there is meaningful heterogeneity with regard to multidimensional well-being configurations. Given the interrelatedness of the multidimensional measures of well-being (e.g., Ryff's six PWB dimensions), it is likely that individuals will concurrently experience similar levels of each well-being dimension. Moreover, this phenomenon corresponds to the cognitive consistency point of view (e.g., Sinclair et al., 2005), such that the perceptions and/or experience of different well-being facets are rarely in conflict (i.e., very high score on one dimension and very low score on another). For example, having supportive and loving relationships with one's family and friends (i.e., high social well-being) is unlikely to be associated with perceptions of a meaningless and purposeless life (i.e., low purpose well-being; e.g., Lambert et al., 2010).

The current study expected similar forms of co-occurrence within the employee population. The Well-Being 5 model components are multidimensional measures of holistic well-being. In particular, the psychosocial dimensions are all validated and operationalized as interrelated positive states of being (Kraatz et al., 2016; Sears et al., 2014). Therefore, the current study proposed three profile groups with level differences: (a) *contented* employees with high scores on purpose, social, financial, and community well-being, (b) *discontented* employees with low scores on purpose, social, financial, and community well-being, and (c) *unconcerned* employees with moderate scores on purpose, social, financial, and community well-being.

The current study also expected shape differences such that the hierarchical ordering of the strength of psychosocial well-being components would differ across profiles. In this regard, I adopted a dominance approach commonly used in the organizational commitment profile literature to explain how different forms of well-being may combine in various shapes (e.g., Meyer, Stanley, & Parfyonova, 2012; Meyer et al., 2015; Somers, 2009).

In the literature on organizational commitment, many person-centered studies have adopted Meyer and Herscovitch's (2001) typology accounting for different ways in which the three commitment mindsets would combine. In addition to commitment level-profiles (e.g., fully committed and uncommitted), there are a few other commonly identified profile groups which differ in shape, including affective commitment (AC)-dominant (i.e., high scores on AC) and continuance commitment (CC)-dominant (i.e., high scores on CC; Kabins, Xu, Bergman, Berry, & Willson, 2016; Meyer et al., 2012; 2015).

This dominance approach is a meaningful approach to describe the differences between profiles (Wang et al., 2013). The dominance idea suggests that not all components of commitment contribute equally to one's commitment profile and behavioral implications, it refers to relatively higher scores in one or more profile components. Specifically, one component may be particularly strong and can dominate how overall commitment is experienced and influence its consequences. For example, AC-dominant groups tend to have stronger intentions to stay in an organization than moderately committed groups (moderate scores on all commitment components) because AC has a stronger binding force than other commitment mindsets/profiles (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In terms of worker motivation, Van den Broeck et al. (2013) found that employees with dominating autonomous motivation (and lower controlled motivation) experienced greater job satisfaction and lower levels of burnout because intrinsic motivation is a stronger driving force of attitudinal and behavioral consequences than extrinsic motivation.

The current study proposed to follow the dominance approach (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and predicted that for some employee subgroups, not all facets of well-being contribute equally to one's holistic well-being. One facet may be particularly strong and can dominate one's perception or outlook of life. Specifically, it is hypothesized that (d) *purpose-dominant* employees would experience high purpose well-being and moderate to low scores on other facets of psychosocial well-being; they enjoy what they do every day, and their overall well-being is driven by the motivation to use their strengths to achieve what they do best.

Next, (e) *social-dominant* employees were expected to experience high social well-being and moderate to low scores on other well-being dimensions; they have strong and supportive interpersonal networks, and their family and friends are the primary source of happiness, positive energy, and motivation. Employees in the (f) *financial-dominant* profile were expected to experience high financial well-being and moderate to low scores on other well-being dimensions; they have adequate financial resources to fulfill their needs and wants, and their overall well-being is influenced by feelings of security about their financial status. Lastly, employees in the (g) *community-dominant* group were expected to score high on community well-being items and moderate to low on other well-being dimensions; they feel safe and secure in their communities, and they derive global life satisfaction and pride from their communities.

There may be cases in which one dominant well-being facet is accompanied by another high-level well-being facet. For example, Meyer et al. (2012) found a distinct profile group dominant in both AC and normative commitment (NC; and low scores on CC), such that these employees felt emotionally attached to an organization, and also an obligation to remain in an organization. Although the current study did not make firm predictions regarding how one dominant well-being may be accompanied by another, the possibility of such an occurrence was not discounted. This data-driven approach was expected to provide new ways of understanding phenomena that may not align with preconceived theoretical frameworks (Spector et al., 2014).

In summary, the current semi-inductive study proposed seven possible well-being profiles (see Table 1 and Figure 1) and expected other naturally occurring subgroups to emerge as well:

Hypothesis 1: The following subgroups are proposed to emerge: (a) contented – high on all indicators, (b) discontented – low on all indicators, (c) unconcerned – moderate on all indicators, (d) purpose-dominant – high on purpose well-being, (e) social-dominant – high on social well-being, (f) financial-dominant – high on financial well-being, and (g) community-dominant – high on community well-being.

Research Question 1: What other common response patterns of psychosocial well-being can be identified among employees examined in the current study?

Antecedents of Well-Being Profiles

To provide insights into the mechanisms of how psychosocial well-being profiles are developed and how they may be leveraged for practical purposes (e.g., wellness promotion), the second objective of the current study involved testing the antecedents of well-being profiles. In other words, these antecedents were expected to predict profile membership among employees. Three categories of antecedents were expected to explain employees' response patterns in well-being items and influence the development of different well-being profiles: (a) physical well-being indicators, (b) work-related factors, and (c) demographic characteristics.

Physical well-being indicators and work-related factors were hypothesized as profile predictors because they are potentially modifiable characteristics in the workplace. The understanding of how these antecedents predict profile membership can inform practitioners (e.g., managers) of how policies and practices can be modified to encourage (prevent) movement toward profiles associated with favorable (unfavorable) outcomes. Even though demographic characteristics are largely unmodifiable (e.g., age), the understanding of the demographic makeup of each well-being profile can indirectly inform organizations of how policies and practices can be improved to enhance overall well-being among employees in certain demographic groups.

Physical Well-Being Predicting Profile Membership

As noted above, a bi-directional relationship between physical and psychological dimensions of health and well-being is witnessed in the literature. Physical health impairments can be a source of chronic or enduring stress and thus negatively interfere with one's psychological state (Gayman et al., 2008; Goldberg, 2010). Stress may be partially due to perceived discrimination especially if physical health issues are stigmatizing (e.g., obesity; Carr & Friedman, 2005). Among employees in particular, physical strain, including work-related injuries, illness, accidents, and physical workloads, can significantly contribute to common mental disorders (Olsen et al., 2015). Positive physical states are also predictive of one's positive psychological functioning (Windle, 2014). Individuals who have better physical health usually experience more positive morale and quality of life because they are not physically limited to pursue their goals and other meaningful activities (e.g., Cho, Martin, Margrett, MacDonald, & Poon, 2011).

Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5's physical well-being dimension is made up of several independent indicators, including (a) physical health perceptions, (b) disease burden, and (c) health behaviors (Sears et al., 2014). In addition, body mass index was considered in the current study as an index of objective physical health. In the current study, employees who perceive greater physical health and subjective health status were expected to display more positive psychosocial well-being patterns. Specifically, employees with greater physical health perceptions were expected to more likely belong to the contented pattern (hypothesized profile #1, see Table 1) than the discontented (hypothesized profile #2) or unconcerned (hypothesized profile #3) pattern. This prediction was based on the argument that individuals with greater physical health perceptions are better able to actively pursue their goals and manage their overall well-being. They are less likely to experience physical limitations that may prevent them from engaging in meaningful activities.

Similar arguments can be made for disease burden, health behaviors, and body mass index. Employees with greater disease burden were expected to display a more negative well-being pattern (e.g., discontented profile) because their health conditions can be both physically and mentally taxing. On the other hand, those who engage in healthier lifestyle behaviors were expected to more likely display a positive psychosocial well-being pattern (e.g., contented profile) than the others (e.g., discontented and unconcerned profiles) because the positive effects of physical activity and healthy diets on psychological well-being have been documented in the literature (Blanchflower, Oswald, & Stewart-Brown, 2013; Netz, Wu, Becker, & Tenenbaum, 2005; Sliter, Sinclair, Cheung, & McFadden, 2014; Windle, 2014). For example, physical activity can promote higher levels of energy and positive mood, and healthy diets can improve sleep quality and mental stamina. On the other hand, alcohol consumption and tobacco use are unhealthy behaviors that are harmful to one’s psychological well-being (e.g., greater risks of depression and anxiety, and damages to interpersonal relationships; Wittman, Paulus, & Roenneberg, 2010). Lastly, employees with higher body mass index (which is often associated with obesity) were expected to display a more negative well-being pattern because individuals with greater BMI have been found to more likely experience depression, low self-esteem, and body dissatisfaction (e.g., Wardle & Cooke, 2005).

The four physical well-being indicators were also expected to predict the membership in profiles with shape differences (hypothesized profiles #4 to #7 in Table 1). Although firm predictions cannot be made with regard to differences in probabilities among the profiles with shape differences, I expected employees who (a) have greater physical health perceptions, (b) experience lower disease burden, (c) engage in healthier lifestyle behaviors, and (d) have lower body mass index to more likely belong to purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles than those who have poorer perceived physical health, greater disease burden, engage in unhealthier lifestyle habits, and have higher body mass index. This is because experiencing higher overall physical well-being allows individuals to pursue their goals (purpose), make time for family and friends (social), not be burdened by healthcare costs (financial), and involve themselves in and contribute to their communities (community). The magnitude of the influence of physical well-being on these dominant (i.e., shape) profiles may depend on the importance and values individuals attach to each well-being facet. For example, a physically well person who also values spending time with friends and families might more likely belong to the social-dominant profile than any other profile.

Hypothesis 2a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 2b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience poorer physical well-being.

Work-Related Factors Predicting Profile Membership

In organizational and occupational health psychology, researchers often seek to investigate what and how work-related factors influence employees' health and well-being. In fact, the direct link between organizational/workplace factors and psychological well-being has been studied extensively (e.g., Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). A deeper understanding of how work-related factors influence employee psychosocial well-being can help organizational practitioners and policy-makers identify work practices that can be targeted to improve employee well-being. In the current study, overall job satisfaction and perceived organizational support were hypothesized as two work-related factors because they are potentially modifiable characteristics in the workplace. The extent to which they predict profile membership among employees can inform organizations of how workplace policies and practices can be adjusted to improve employee well-being.

Job Satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction is one of the commonly studied work-related variables because it is an important indicator of employee health and well-being (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Faragher et al., 2005). Overall job satisfaction represents employees' overall experience of work, and it refers to employees' overall affective orientation toward their occupied work role as a whole (Kalleberg, 1977; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). Overall job satisfaction theoretically represents the sum of job facet satisfaction across all facets of a job, including pay, supervisor, and coworker. However, Scarpello and Campbell (1983) concluded that overall job satisfaction is a more inclusive measure than the summation of many facets, thus recommending the use of overall global measures of job satisfaction to assess employees' overall affective experience at work (Wanous & Reichers, & Hudy, 1997).

The current study expected overall job satisfaction to significantly predict well-being profile membership. According to the spillover hypothesis, experiences from one life domain (e.g., at work) can have corresponding influences on experiences in other life domains (e.g., non-work; family; Bowling et al., 2010). Based on the spillover hypothesis, the current study expected employees with higher levels of overall job satisfaction to display a more positive psychosocial well-being pattern (i.e., contented) than the discontented or unconcerned pattern. It is because their positive experiences at work are expected to also contribute to satisfaction in their non-work domains.

Overall job satisfaction was also expected to predict the membership in profiles with shape differences (hypothesized profiles #4 to #7 in Table 1). Overall job satisfaction is a function of fulfillment of individual needs through work (Spector, 1997). The current study expected employee who experience high levels of overall job satisfaction to more likely belong to purpose-, social-, financial-, and community-dominant profiles than those who experience low levels of job satisfaction. This is because overall job satisfaction can explain (or reflect) the fulfillment of employees' needs for goal pursuit and mastery experiences (purpose), interpersonal supportive networks at work (social), financial resources and security (financial), and a secure living location and safe communities (community). Employees are likely to differ in their individual needs. Therefore, the strength of overall job satisfaction predicting profile membership may depend on the fulfillment and salience of individual needs. For example, employees reporting high job satisfaction due to the fulfillment of needs for interpersonal relationships at work are perhaps more likely to belong to the social-dominant profile (than other dominant profiles), while those reporting high job satisfaction due to income satisfaction are probably more likely to belong to the financial-dominant profile (than other dominant profiles).

It is also possible that work-related affective feelings, like job satisfaction, have a stronger and more direct bearing on purpose well-being than other well-being components (e.g., social and community) because employees may derive perceptions of meaningfulness (e.g., goal mastery; task significance) at their workplace, where they spend much of their time on a regular basis. On the other hand, their affective orientation toward their job may not have as much of an influence on their community involvement or interpersonal relationships with family and friends outside of work.

Hypothesis 3a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience higher overall job satisfaction will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 3b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience higher overall job satisfaction will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience lower overall job satisfaction.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS is another important contributing factor of employee psychological well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009). POS refers to “employees’ general belief that their work organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 698). According to the organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), favorable job conditions and/or organization rewards such as pay, job enrichment, provision of resources and social support can contribute to higher POS. Higher POS can then contribute to better psychological well-being among employees because the support and respect implied by POS can fulfill employee socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Higher POS also indicates the availability of resources, such as material aid and emotional support, for employees to face demands at work, thus strengthening their organizational membership identity and emotional attachment to their organization, and subsequently improving their psychological well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009).

The current study hypothesized POS as a predictor of well-being profile membership. According to Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) organizational support theory, employees who perceive higher POS would experience greater psychological well-being because POS represents an overall favorable treatment from the organization. POS also represents fulfillment of socio-emotional needs, including the needs for approval, esteem, affiliation, and emotional support (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Therefore, the current study expected employees with higher levels of POS to display a more positive psychosocial well-being pattern (i.e., contented) than other profiles with level differences (i.e., discontented and unconcerned).

Employee POS perceptions were also expected to predict profile membership in profiles with shape differences (hypothesized profiles #4 to #7 in Table 1). The current study expected employees who experience higher levels of POS to more likely belong to purpose-, social-, financial-, and community-dominant profiles than those who experience lower levels of POS.

Although the current study was only able to test the direct relationship between POS and profile membership and cannot make specific hypotheses with regard to the probability differences among the profiles with shape differences, it was assumed that profile membership may differ depending on employee perceptions of the specific form of support provided by the organization. In other words, even though the perceptions of specific forms of support were not directly measured in the current study, profile membership differences may occur based on different forms of POS. For example, employees may more likely display (a) purpose-dominant profile pattern if high levels of POS perceptions are based on organizational support to pursue meaningful goals and gain mastery experiences, (b) social-dominant profile if high levels of POS are based on an organization's promotion of stronger relational bonds among employees, (c) financial-dominant profile pattern if high levels of POS perceptions are attributable to the organization's favorable monetary compensation, or (d) community-dominant profile if high POS is based on an organization's encouragement of employee involvement in their communities.

Similar to job satisfaction, it is possible that work-related perceptions of support (i.e., POS) have stronger and more direct implications for purpose well-being than other well-being components (e.g., community) because POS may more likely refer to work-related supportive policies and procedures that allow employees to meet their work-related needs (e.g., goal mastery, adequate resources) than their needs outside of work (e.g., community involvement).

Hypothesis 4a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience higher POS will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 4b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience higher POS will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience lower POS.

Demographic Characteristics Predicting Profile Membership

An examination of how demographic characteristics predict profile membership would provide meaningful information about the demographic makeup of each well-being profile. Unlike physical well-being and work-related factors, demographic characteristics are largely unmodifiable and findings related to demographics can only indirectly inform policy changes to improve employee well-being. For example, if age predicts profile membership, such that older employees tend to report more negative well-being response patterns, organizations may use this piece of information to develop positive organizational age climate because employees' age cannot directly be modified. If employees with more dependents report more negative well-being patterns, organizations may develop family-friendly policies at work to support work-family balance because they cannot change the number of dependents employees have.

Socioeconomic Status (SES). SES has been established as a robust indicator of health disparities (Adler & Stewart, 2010), but its impact on psychological well-being is still unclear (Anderson, Kraus, Galinsky, & Keltner, 2012). Some researchers have argued that SES can predict psychosocial well-being. For example, the stratification theory indicates that resources are differentially allocated based on social structures and social processes, and thus individuals with higher SES tend to receive more resources and experience better psychosocial well-being than those with lower SES (George, 2010). On the other hand, low SES environments tend to be associated with greater psychological stress due to more frequent exposure to intense threatening situations (Adler et al., 1994). Therefore, individuals with lower SES tend to encounter more negative life events and chronic psychosocial stressors, while having limited stress-dampening resources (Matthews, Gallo, & Taylor, 2010).

Empirical studies, however, have thus far only found weak relations between SES and psychosocial well-being (e.g., Anderson et al., 2012; Diener et al., 1999), hence calling into question whether objective SES indicators can sufficiently predict psychosocial well-being. Based on the adaptation theory, some researchers argued that individuals adapt to their objective SES, and their needs and goals tend to differ at different SES levels. For example, an increase in income does not necessarily increase well-being because individuals also adapt and adjust their goals and expectations accordingly, thus potentially explaining the weak relations between SES and well-being (Diener et al., 1999). The current study examined three SES indicators as predictors of profile membership: (a) income, (b) education, and (c) employment status. Due to the competing arguments regarding the effects of SES on psychosocial well-being, the current study cannot formulate hypotheses, but rather posed a research question about the predictive effects of SES indicators in distinguishing profile membership.

Research Question 2: Can SES indicators (income, education, and employment status) predict profile membership?

Age. In the well-being literature, there is a somewhat uniform finding regarding the relationship between age and well-being, such that well-being appears to follow a U-shape over the life cycle. Well-being tends to start at relatively high levels at the outset of adulthood, then it falls gradually until around the mid-forties and rises again at the early fifties (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2008; Piper, 2015; Stone, Schwartz, Broderick, & Deaton, 2010). This phenomenon continues to occur even after controlling for income, job status, and other confounding demographic variables.

Researchers in behavioral and social sciences argued that the U-shape is caused by unmet aspirations that are more salient during midlife but are experienced with less regret during old age (Schwandt, 2013). Specifically, young adults tend to have high aspirations and are optimistic about their future, and their well-being decreases with age because much of their aspirations remain high and unmet. When they are in their fifties, they tend to abandon their unmet aspirations and make adjustments by aligning their expectations with current situations, thus allowing their well-being to rise (Schwandt, 2013).

Even though many studies established a U-shaped relationship between age and well-being, a number of studies have failed to replicate the same findings. For example, lifespan development studies found that younger adults tend to experience more mental health problems/illness than older adults, thus suggesting a U-shaped relationship may not necessarily occur (e.g., Kessler, Mickelson, Walters, Zhao, & Hamilton, 2004; Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Moreover, Winkelmann and Winkelmann (1998) found a strong linear negative effect of age on well-being, while Easterlin, Schaeffer, and Macunovich (1993) concluded an almost flat relationship, and Baird, Lucas, and Donnellan (2010) found evidence for a late-life decline (which is consistent with the classical model of subjective well-being). Moreover, after controlling for birth cohort effects, Sutin and colleagues (2013) found that all cohorts had a linear increase in well-being with age. These mixed findings suggest that a clear picture of how psychosocial well-being changes with age has not emerged (Sutin et al., 2013). The current study, therefore, posed another research question about the predictive effects of age in profile membership.

Research Question 3: Can age predict profile membership?

Number of Children Living at Home. The work-family conflict literature suggests that employees with children tend to experience more work-family conflict than those without children (Byron, 2005). The number of children employees have living in their home is one of the common representations of parental/family demands, and having more children is assumed to cause greater interference with work (i.e., family-to-work conflict; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). According to the role strain theory, responsibilities from work and family domains compete for employees' limited amount of energy and resources (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, when employees have many dependent children, their family demands and childcare responsibilities would compete for employees' time, energy, and resources with work responsibilities, thus causing strain-based interference. This argument would then support the prediction that having more dependent children at home would lead to poorer psychosocial well-being.

There is, however, a recent surge in interest in work-family enrichment, a relatively newer concept implying that work and family domains do not necessarily conflict with one another, but can rather have additive beneficial effects on employee psychosocial well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). If both work and family experiences are positive, employees are more likely to experience better well-being. High-quality family life can even buffer the effects of work stress. For example, employees with more children may find familial relations more enriching and satisfying. While it is beyond the scope of the current study to examine work-family experiences, these competing arguments suggest that having more dependent children at home may or may not lead to more positive psychosocial well-being among employees. The current study, therefore, proposed a research question about the effects of family characteristics (i.e., number of children living at home) in predicting profile membership.

Research Question 4: Can the number of children living at home predict profile membership?

Outcomes of Well-Being Profiles

The next study objective was to examine how profile membership can distinguish employees on physical well-being and work-related performance outcomes. Specific hypothesized outcomes were (a) physical health perceptions, (b) disease burden, (c) health behaviors, (d) body mass index, (e) self-rated job performance, (f) work-related absenteeism, and (g) work-related presenteeism. A deeper understanding of how profiles are meaningfully related to these outcomes can establish practical value of the extracted profiles. Employers or managers can use these findings to understand which profiles are more or less favorable, and can thus target intervention programs for those in less favorable well-being profiles, or those in profiles at greater risks for poorer physical health and productivity problems at work.

It is also important to raise the possibility of equifinality, such that the same end state may be reached by different means (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Sinclair et al., 2005). There is not necessarily one single optimal configuration of psychosocial well-being. There may be multiple configurations (or profiles) associated with favorable physical well-being and work performance. The equifinal nature of well-being profiles may provide practitioners with different potential avenues for effective intervention work. For example, if both contented (high on all psychosocial dimensions) and social-dominant (high on social well-being) profiles are associated with effective job performance outcomes, practitioners may achieve the same improvement in job performance by targeting interpersonal aspects in the workplace, instead of investing resources to enhance four separate dimensions of psychosocial well-being.

Profiles Predicting Physical Well-Being Outcomes

As discussed above, there is a bi-directional relationship between physical and psychological dimensions of well-being. To test the reciprocal effects of this relationship, the current study hypothesized physical well-being as a predictor of profile membership (see hypotheses 2a and 2b), as well as an outcome of well-being profiles. As noted above, psychosocial factors can predict physical health changes through physiological and behavioral pathways (Steptoe, 2006). Chida and Steptoe (2008) also concluded that positive psychosocial states have protective effects on physical health conditions (e.g., cardiovascular disease) and mortality. Individuals with negative psychosocial well-being, on the other hand, tend to have weaker immune functioning and other health problems due to greater disease susceptibility (Chida & Steptoe, 2008; Diener & Chan, 2011; Howell et al., 2007). Individuals with positive psychosocial states also have greater preference for adaptive coping behaviors and healthier lifestyle choices. Additionally, they are more likely to engage in physical exercises and follow a healthier diet (Grant, Wardle, & Steptoe, 2009).

The current study therefore expected well-being profiles to distinguish employees on (a) physical health perceptions, (b) disease burden, (c) health behaviors, and (d) body mass index. Specifically, among profiles with level differences (hypothesized profiles #1 to #3 in Table 1), it was hypothesized that employees in a more positive psychosocial well-being profile (i.e., contented) are more likely to experience greater physical health perceptions and lower disease burden and body mass index, and engage in healthier behaviors than those in the discontented or unconcerned well-being profile. Regarding profiles with shape differences (hypothesized profiles #4 to #7 in Table 1), employees in purpose-, social-, financial-, and community-dominant profiles were also expected to score higher on each physical well-being indicator than those in profiles where all well-being facets are concurrently moderate or low (discontented or unconcerned).

Due to the possible equifinal nature of configurations, the current study may find similar predictive effects of physical well-being outcomes among those in contented and the four dominant profiles. There is a possibility that having high scores on all psychosocial factors (i.e., contented) is ideal but not necessary to achieve desirable physical well-being outcomes. Findings regarding how profiles with shape differences would predict physical well-being outcomes can be particularly meaningful for practical purposes because organizations usually have limited resources at their disposal, and the dominance feature of these profiles can help pinpoint problematic areas during the development of employee well-being interventions.

Hypothesis 5a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees in the contented profile are expected to experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) than other profiles.

Hypothesis 5b: Employees in profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles) are expected to experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) than those who are in the discontented or unconcerned profile.

Profiles Predicting Work Productivity Outcomes

An organization's success depends largely on employees' performance and productivity at work. Performance management involves understanding factors contributing to suboptimal productivity and other costly outcomes (e.g., absenteeism). To identify employee groups with productivity issues, the current study examined the extent to which profile membership can distinguish employees on work productivity outcomes, including (a) self-rated job performance, (b) work-related absenteeism, and (c) work-related presenteeism. In the current study, self-rated job performance involved employees rating their own overall job performance during the past four weeks. Work-related absenteeism is reflected by the number of days (in the past four weeks) employees had to miss entire work days because of physical and mental health problems. Work-related presenteeism refers to decreased job performance due to the presence of health problems or other stressors (e.g., lack of resources; Schultz & Edington, 2007).

Even though self-rated job performance is a direct and straightforward measure of performance at work, it does not necessarily reflect health-related productivity issues. The current study therefore included measures of absenteeism and presenteeism to document the extent to which productivity is lost because of health problems or other stressors. Presenteeism is receiving increasing attention from scholars in occupational medicine, but relatively few scholars in organizational psychology have studied this concept (Johns, 2010). Between absenteeism and presenteeism, researchers have found that effects of ill-being tend to more strongly manifest in the form of presenteeism than absenteeism (Cooper & Dewe, 2008). One of the possible reasons is that employees cannot afford to miss entire days of work because of pay or work deadlines, so they go to work ill and perform below par because of their poor health and/or stressors. Therefore, absenteeism and presenteeism appear to capture unique variability of productivity loss; the extent to which well-being profiles differentially predict these two outcomes may have different practical implications for workplace interventions.

The current study expected employees in more positive profile groups (e.g., contented) to have greater overall self-rated job performance, and lower work-related absenteeism and presenteeism. According to the happy-productive worker hypothesis, the linkage between employee psychological well-being and job performance has been supported (Wright, 2010; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; 2004; Zheng, Zhu, Zhao, & Zhang, 2015). Employees with greater psychosocial well-being tend to have greater self-efficacy beliefs and are more motivated to perform well at work. They also tend to have more positive valence, instrumentality, and expectancy beliefs about performance outcomes, and would thus have greater persistence in performing job-related tasks (Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins, & Decesare, 2011). On the other hand, employees with poorer psychosocial well-being tend to ruminate and experience more cognitive interference during their performance at work. Their physical and/or cognitive deficits resulting from poor psychosocial well-being may also lead to higher levels of absenteeism (Ford et al., 2011). For example, they might be more preoccupied with negative events and emotional regulation, and cannot allocate adequate cognitive and/or emotional resources to their work tasks (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005).

Based on Fredrickson's (2001) broaden-and-build theory, positive emotions (including the experience of psychosocial well-being) can "broaden" individuals' thought-action repertories, which would then foster individual's desire to explore, learn and assimilate new knowledge and information (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004; Wright et al., 2007). In other words, more positive psychosocial well-being can foster employees' perceptions of meaningfulness at work and their motivation to perform and gain mastery experiences. On the other hand, employees with poorer psychosocial well-being are expected to be less able to "broaden" their thought-action repertories and "build" resources at work, because they are more preoccupied at work and they have limited cognitive and/or socio-emotional resources to broaden and build new resources.

Hypothesis 6a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees in the contented profile are expected to have better productivity outcomes at work (i.e., higher self-rated job performance, lower work-related absenteeism, and lower work-related presenteeism) than other profiles.

Hypothesis 6b: Employees in profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles) are expected to have better productivity outcomes at work (i.e., higher self-rated job performance, lower work-related absenteeism, and lower work-related presenteeism) than those who are in the discontented or unconcerned profile.

Stability of Well-Being Profiles

To capture the dynamic processes of profile development and transitions (Meyer et al., 2013b; Ployhart & Vandenberg, 2010), there have been calls for more person-centered longitudinal research to delineate the stability of well-being profile membership over time (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Busseri et al., 2009; Thøgersen-Ntoumani et al., 2011). Therefore, the current study used two-wave longitudinal responses to conduct latent transition analyses (LTA) in examining profile stability, as well as identifying the most and least common transition patterns based on latent transition probabilities.

Unlike rank-order stability or absolute stability in variable-centered studies, the current study will focus of ipsative stability, which refers to the extent of continuity of the configuration of multiple dimensions of well-being (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Mäkikangas et al., 2016). Ipsative stability can thus provide information on the continuity of the patterning of psychosocial well-being dimensions within an employee over time. The current study also included the hypothesized profile predictors and outcomes as covariates in the LTA to determine the extent to which those variables were related to the transition probabilities (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014). These stability findings can inform practitioners of ways to encourage (or prevent) movement toward profiles associated with positive (negative) outcomes. Findings relevant to the covariates of transition probabilities can also present mechanisms in which profile movements can potentially be leveraged.

In both theoretical and empirical terms, the stability of well-being over time is unclear. Busseri and colleagues (2009) argued that well-being configurations are flexible and adaptable, and individuals may change their profile membership across situations and over time in order to maintain positive psychological functioning. For example, Shmotkin (2005) suggested that the adaptation effect can result in changes in well-being because pleasant experiences can only boost well-being for short periods. Individuals adapt to their life circumstances and adjust their goals that may subsequently result in changes in their overall well-being. For example, in a sample of college students, Chen (2012) found more homogeneous subgroups over time, and concluded that profile changes may have been due to college adaptation. In a meta-analytic review, Mäkikangas and colleagues (2016) discovered that changes in well-being were more frequent than stability among employees, especially among younger employees and job changers.

However, Springer, Pudrovska, and Hauser (2011) did not find age variations in PWB profiles, meaning individuals did not change their PWB profile membership over time. Moreover, Röcke and Lachman (2008) found both stable and unstable patterns in SWB profile membership over time. Some had relatively stable SWB, while others had unidirectional (increase or decline) and bi-directional (increase and decline) changes over time. These patterns were found to depend on sociodemographic and biopsychosocial covariates (e.g., personality, health, and social relationships).

Because of these diverse findings, the current study cannot develop specific hypotheses regarding the degree of stability of psychosocial well-being profiles among employees. Therefore, I proposed the following research question that may deepen our understanding of and inform new theories about the stability of well-being profiles. In addition, I proposed another research question about the extent to which the profile predictors and outcomes may be related to profile transitions.

Research Question 5: How stable are psychosocial well-being profiles over time?

Research Question 6: Do the hypothesized profile predictors and outcomes (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity) influence transitions between profiles?

CHAPTER FIVE

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Three Gallup-Healthways datasets representing three separate employee samples were used to perform the analyses for the current study. The first dataset (i.e., Sample 1) was a de-identified Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 dataset consisting of telephonic responses collected from approximately 300,000 participants each year in 2014 and 2015.

Gallup conducts live interviews with 1,000 U.S. adults nationally every day for seven days a week, except national holidays, from all 50 states and the District of Columbia. Participants are selected based on a dual-frame random-digit-dialing sampling method, which includes both landlines and wireless phone sampling in order to also reach wireless-only households, and a random selection method in selecting participants within a household (Gallup-Healthways, 2009; Merrill et al., 2011). The data are weighted daily by age, gender, region, education, and race in order to match the demographic representation in the U.S. Census Bureau.

To minimize generalizability concerns, this dataset was filtered based on respondents' employment status (i.e., only those who are employed full-time or part-time were included) and used as a (population-based) representative employee sample to conduct exploratory LPAs and determine the final best-fitting profile solution. A representative sample as such is preferred because it reduces possible confounding effects arising from self-selection into specific groups – a phenomenon that is more likely with employee samples who are all in the same organization.

The final sample size for Sample 1, combining responses from 2014 and 2015, was 199,617. The average age of the participants was 46.79 years old (*SD* = 15.72). About 57.5% of the participants were male, and 42.3% were female. Most participants were employed full-time (68.7%), followed by employed part-time, do not want full-time (13.7%), self-employed full-time (9.2%), and employed part-time, want full-time (8.4%). A majority of the participants were White (73.4%), followed by Hispanic (10.4%), Black (8.9%), and Asian (2.7%). Most participants were married (55.8%) and single (22.1%). There was a fairly diverse distribution of monthly household income, ranging from $1,000 to $1,999 (5.7%), $3,000 to $3,999 (6.9%), $5,000 to $7,499 (12.7%), to $10,000 and over (12.7%). A majority of Sample 1 participants had 2 adults (including themselves) living in their household (53.9%), followed by 1 adult (20.6%), 3 adults (14.8%), and 4 adults (6.1%). About 63.8% of the participants did not have any children under the age of 18 living in their household; 14.7% had 1 child living in their household, following by 2 children (13.3%), 3 children (5.2%) and 4 children (1.8%).

The second and third datasets (i.e., Sample 2 and Sample 3) were de-identified Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 two-wave longitudinal datasets comprising of two samples of employees from two different companies. Sample 2 represents a healthcare company; Sample 3 represents a trucking company. The Well-Being 5 survey instrument, including both demographic and work-related items, was distributed in an online/electronic format. The first and second surveys were completed in 2014 and 2015 respectively. The time lapse between two time points ranged from six months to one year.

In Sample 2, 3,468 employees responded in Time 1 (2014), and 3,523 responded in Time 2 (2015). There were 2,477 employees who participated at both time points. The average age of Sample 2 participants who responded at Time 1 was 42.77 years old (*SD* = 12.31), and 41.49 years old (*SD* = 12.01) for those who responded at Time 2. About 50% of the sample were married (48.7% in Time 1 and 49.4% in Time 2). Most of them were employed full-time (i.e., employed by an employer for 30 hours or more per week; 86.9% in Time 1 and 87.7% in Time 2). Monthly household income was quite evenly distributed across different income categories; the most frequently endorsed categories were $5,000 to $7,499 (14.5% in Time 1 and 14.8% in Time 2), and $10,000 to $14,999 (13.4% in Time 1 and 14.9% in Time 2). Over 50% of the sample either had a college degree (36.9% in Time 1 and 36.2% in Time 2) or a post-graduate degree (21.1% in Time 1 and 20.7% in Time 2).

In Sample 3, 1,717 employees responded in Time 1 (2014), and 1,589 employees responded in Time 2 (2015). There were 772 employees who participated at both time points. The average age of Sample 3 participants who responded at Time 1 was 47.65 years old (*SD* = 11.05), and 47.13 years old (*SD*

= 11.00) for those who responded at Time 2. A little more than 50% of the sample were married (52.1% in Time 1 and 50.9% in Time 2). Most of them were employed full-time (i.e., employed by an employer for 30 hours or more per week; 97% in Time 1 and 90.4% in Time 2). The most frequently endorsed monthly household income category was $4,000 to $4,999 (9.8%) in Time 1, and $5,000 to $7,499 in Time 2 (10.3%). Most of the participants had a high school degree or diploma (20.9% in Time 1 and 17.2% in Time 2), followed by some college (19.8% in Time 1 and 17.1% in Time 2), and a college degree (14.4% in Time 1 and 15.5% in Time 2).

These longitudinal datasets (i.e., Sample 2 and Sample 3) were used to cross-validate the LPA solution obtained from Sample 1, and conduct subsequent analyses concerning the hypothesized predictors and outcomes of profile membership, and profile stability over time.

Measures

The Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 survey assesses five well-being elements: purpose, social, financial, community, and physical. It is considered one of the most complete and holistic measurement of well-being in the industry (Healthways, n.d.). The Well-Being 5 instrument was developed and validated using over 13,000 individuals across three independent samples (Sears et al., 2014). The measures were rooted in prior validated well-being instruments developed by Gallup and Healthways, including Well-Being Index (WBI), Well-Being Assessment (WBA), and Well-Being Finder (WBF). A series of factor analyses revealed that four out of five latent well-being factors (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community) exhibited excellent model fit, while physical well-being was a formative construct represented by independent factors, including health behaviors, health status, and substance use (Sears et al., 2014). The Well-Being 5 survey administration also included demographic items and work-related constructs that were designed to drive risk identification, predictive modeling, and tailored feedback. These demographic items and work-related constructs (described below) were used as profile predictors and/or outcomes in the current study.

Well-Being 5

Purpose Well-Being (5 items). Purpose well-being, measured by five 5-point Likert type items, refers to being motivated to achieve daily goals, and enjoying what one does every day. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from .77 to .87 across Samples 1 to 3.

Social Well-Being (4 items). Social well-being, measured by four 5-point Likert type items, refers to having supportive and strong relationships with family and friends. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from .70 to .78 across Samples 1 to 3.

Financial Well-Being (5 items). Financial well-being, measured by three 5-point Likert type and two binary items, refers to being able to manage economic life and feeling secure about one's financial status. The binary items (scaled from 1 to 2) items were transformed to a 1-5 scale prior to being averaged with other Likert type items. Specifically, participants responded either yes or no to the binary items. “Yes” responses were transformed to a score of 1 - indicating low financial well-being, and “no” responses were transformed to a score of 5 – indicating high financial well-being. The Cronbach’s alpha ranged from .73 to .77 across Samples 1 to 3.

Community Well-Being (7 items). Community well-being, measured by six 5-point Likert type and one binary items, refers to liking where one lives, and feeling safe and secure in one’s community. The binary item (scaled from 1 to 2) was transformed to a 1-5 scale prior to being averaged with other Likert type items. Specifically, participants responded either satisfied or dissatisfied to the binary item. Those who responded “satisfied” had a transformed score of 5 – indicating high community well-being, and those who responded “dissatisfied” had a transformed score of 1 – indicating low community well-being. The Cronbach’s alpha ranged from .81 to .86 across Samples 1 to 3.

Physical Well-Being. Physical well-being refers to having good physical health and being able to get things done daily without physical limitations. The current study used four theoretically connected but distinct indicators of physical well-being: (a) physical health perceptions, (b) disease burden, (c) health behaviors, and (d) body mass index. These four physical well-being variables were treated separately because, altogether, they are formative indicators of physical well-being which are not necessarily related to one another (Sears et al., 2014). For example, disease burden is not necessarily related to health behaviors.

Physical health perceptions (4 items). Physical health perceptions, measured by four 5-point Likert items, refer to an individual's perception of their own overall physical health and ability to engage in physical activities. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from .85 to .87 across Samples 2 and 3.

Disease burden. Disease burden is an additive index of the number of health conditions an individual has. Participants were asked if they have ever been told by a physician or nurse that they had any of the health conditions, including high blood pressure, high cholesterol, cancer, and diabetes.

Health behaviors. Self-reported health behaviors were represented by individuals' (a) tobacco use and (b) exercise frequency. Tobacco use was an additive summary of the types of tobacco products individuals used, including cigarettes, cigars, pipe, and smokeless tobacco. Exercise frequency was based on one item asking individuals the number of days in the past week they exercised for 30 or more minutes.

Body mass index. Body mass index was calculated based on respondents' self-reported height (in inches) and weight (in pounds). The formula was (weight in pounds*703)/(height in inches^2).

Work-Related Variables

Work-related variables were assessed among Sample 2 and Sample 3 employees in the same Well-Being 5 survey instrument. Apart from presenteeism, work-related variables in the current study were examined using single-item measures. Although multiple-items measures may have more reliable psychometric properties, researchers have noted the advantages of single-item measures, including face validity, less respondent burden, and less criterion contamination (Fisher, Matthews, & Gibbons, 2016).

Job Satisfaction (1 item). Respondents were asked whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied with their job or the work they do.

Perceived Organizational Support (1 item). Respondents were asked to rate on a ladder from 0 to 10 the extent to which their organization cared about their well-being.

Self-Rated Job Performance (1 item). Respondents were asked to rate on a ladder from 0 to 10 their overall job performance on the days they worked during the past 4 weeks (0 being the worst job performance and 10 being the best performance).

Work-Related Absenteeism (1 item). Respondents were asked how many days in the past four weeks they missed an entire work day because of problems with their own physical or mental health.

Work-Related Presenteeism (11 items). Respondents were asked how often (during the past four weeks) they have been at work but have had trouble concentrating on doing their best because of issues such as their health or a physical condition, lack of resources, or financial stress/concerns. The response scale included “not at all” (0), “some” (1), and “a lot” (2). These items were adopted from validated measures of presenteeism from the Health and Work Performance Questionnaire and the Work Productivity and Activity Limitations

Questionnaire (Kessler et al., 2003; Merrill et al., 2012; Reilly, Zbrozek, & Dukes, 1993). The overall presenteeism score for each participant was calculated by summing the 11 responses (cf. Merrill et al., 2012).

Demographic Characteristics

As reported above, Sample 2 and Sample 3 respondents were asked about their employment status (full-time versus part-time), marital status, general category of work they did in their primary jobs, the number of children they had living in their home, monthly household income, highest level of completed education, and race.

Analytical Strategies

The current study relied primarily on latent mixture modeling, specifically latent profile analysis (LPA) to create profiles of psychosocial well-being, and latent transition analysis (LTA) to examine profile stability over time. LPA aims to uncover relations among individuals with the goal to sort them into clusters of individuals who are similar to each other and different from other clusters (Lubke & Muthén, 2005; Marsh et al., 2009). Unlike factor analysis, which highlights the relationship among variables, LPA decomposes the co-variances between items to uncover relationships among individuals.

Among the small body of existing research in well-being profiles, only a few studies have used the LPA modeling technique for profile analysis. As discussed in Chapter 3, LPA has a number of advantages over other traditional clustering methods (e.g., cluster analysis). LPA is a model-based technique that allows direct specifications of mixture models, and provides statistical goodness-of-fit indices for more objective comparisons of different profile solutions. LPA is also more flexible in that parameters (e.g., within- and between-class variances, within- and between- class co-variances, and indicator means) can be fixed to certain values and/or freely estimated in order to conduct meaningful tests of theories and research questions. In other words, both exploratory and confirmatory LPAs can be conducted for theory building and replication purposes. LPA is also superior to other clustering method because it follows a probabilities classification approach, so that classification accuracy and reliability can be taken into account when researchers evaluate and validate profile solutions.

Sample 1: Exploratory Latent Profile Analyses

The first step was to determine the number of groups with theoretically meaningful and differentiated profiles in a representative employee sample. A series of exploratory LPAs were first conducted using Sample 1. Specifically, I explored a series of unrestricted LPA models using varying numbers of groups (ranging from 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 7-, to 8-profile solutions) and selected a solution that aligned with theory, previous research, as well as the thresholds for goodness-of-fit indexes and significance tests.

All LPA models were tested with Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015) using an iterative estimation procedure based on the default robust maximum likelihood estimation method, which also estimates parameter estimates and model fit statistics. Mixture models often present estimation difficulties (e.g., local optima). To maximize the chances of detecting the global minimum and avoid converging on a local solution (i.e., local likelihood maximum), which can lead to inaccurate parameter estimates, all models were estimated with at least 100 random sets of start values, 30 iterations, and 30 best solutions were retained for the final optimization. When errors occurred (e.g., local likelihood maximum), the number of random sets of starting values were increased to improve the chances of finding the optimal solution with the highest log likelihood value (i.e., probability of the observed data given the hypothesized model; Lubke & Muthén, 2005; Muthén, 2001).

Mplus, by default, constrains the variances of the indicators to be equal across profiles. Following recommendations from other researchers (e.g., Kam, Morin, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2013; Morin et al., 2011), the current study tested these implicit invariance assumptions by examining alternative models which freely estimated the variances of the indicators in each of the latent profiles.

Within each LPA model solution, I examined the model parameters (e.g., within-class factor loadings and intercepts, and mean differences between classes), classification quality (e.g., entropy; higher values represent higher classification utility), and posterior profile probabilities with which each participant belonged to each of the profiles. I also cross-examined the average latent profile probabilities and participants' most likely latent profile membership. This ensures that participants can be reliably classified into the identified latent profiles.

To determine the best-fitting profile solution across LPA models with differing numbers of profiles, I compared the nested latent profile models using various relative model fit indexes. Models with the smallest Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), and sample-size-adjusted BIC (aBIC) would be considered as the most preferred solution. Additionally, the Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin (VLMR) test was used to compare the fit improvement between neighboring profile models, and determine whether a *k*-profile solution fits better than a *k*-1 profile solution. In other words, VLMR provides significance tests indicating whether there is a statistically significant improvement in fit for the inclusion of one more profile (Nylund et al., 2007). A low *p*-value would indicate that the model with one less profile is rejected in favor of the estimated LPA model.

I also considered the parametric bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT; McLachlan & Peel, 2000) comparing the estimated model to a model with one less profile than the estimated model. The BLRT uses bootstrap samples to estimate the empirical distribution of the log likelihood difference test. A significant *p*-value would indicate that the estimated model with *k* profiles fits the data better than *k*-1 profiles (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2015). If the *p*-value is non-significant, the more parsimonious model (*k*-1 profiles) would be preferred (Geiser, 2013).

The final best-fitting solution was determined not only by model fit statistics, but also by the extent to which there was substantive meaning to the final profile solution and theoretical conformity of the extracted profiles. To interpret the meaning of the profiles extracted in each model, the estimated mean values for each profile indicator were turned into z-scores to determine the high, medium, and low values across profiles. Using a meaningful zero point (i.e., average) enabled easier interpretation of the response patterns across different profiles (e.g., how responses to each profile indicator deviated from the average value in each profile group).

Sample 2 and Sample 3: Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses

After a best-fitting solution was determined using Sample 1, confirmatory LPAs were conducted to examine the extent to which the profiles identified from the exploratory LPA can be replicated in Sample 2 and Sample 3. Confirmatory models were tested using responses from both time points (Time 1 and Time 2) in Sample 2 and Sample 3 – hence there were four sets of confirmatory models. Cross-validating the existence of these profiles in separate samples can address generalizability concerns (Pastor et al., 2007; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; Wang et al., 2013). To cross-validate, fully restricted LPA models were first conducted by manually constraining all of the parameter estimates in Sample 2 and Sample 3 to be the same as those obtained in Sample 1, including cluster means, variances, and co-variances (Pastor et al., 2007). Results of model fit and classification quality were examined to determine if cross-validation was successful.

To improve the model fit of the fully restricted models in Samples 2 and 3, modification indices were also considered and the parameters with the largest modification indices were released one at a time until model fit improvement became trivial. Afterwards, the fully restricted models were compared to subsequent models in which one parameter estimate constraint was released at a time. After a best-fitting solution was determined for each time point in Samples 2 and 3, I made qualitative comparisons to see if freeing the parameter estimates in Samples 2 and 3 changed the interpretations of the profiles. Estimates in the final best-fitting confirmatory solutions within each sample and each time point were used for subsequent analyses of profile predictors, outcomes, and stability.

Sample 2 and Sample 3: Profile Predictors and Profile Outcomes

The analyses of profile predictors and profile outcomes were conducted using Samples 2 and 3. These analyses were tested both cross-sectionally and longitudinally. Specifically, within each sample, Time 1 predictors (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, and demographic factors) were first tested as predictors of Time 1 profile membership, Time 2 predictors were then tested as predictors of Time 2 profile membership. Subsequently, Time 1 predictors were tested as longitudinal predictors of Time 2 profile membership.

The tests of profile outcomes were also tested both cross-sectionally and longitudinally in Sample 2 and Sample 3. Within each sample, Time 1 profiles were first used to predict differences in Time 1 outcomes (i.e., physical well-being and work productivity). Time 2 profiles were then used to predict differences in

Time 2 outcomes. Lastly, longitudinal ANOVAs were conducted between Time 1 profiles and Time 2 outcomes.

In Mplus, the automatic three-step method was specified so that the predictors and outcomes were included as auxiliary variables in the LPA models (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014). In the first step, the LPA model was estimated. In the second step, the most likely profile membership variable (i.e., a categorical variable accounting for the profile to which an individual most likely belongs) was created based on the latent profile posterior distribution obtained during the LPA estimation. In the third step, the auxiliary variables were tested in relation to the most likely profile membership variable (i.e., categorical profile variable), while taking into consideration the classification error rate (Wang & Hanges, 2011).

The R3STEP command was used to model antecedents in Mplus, and a series of multinomial logistic regression analyses were conducted to determine whether an increase in an antecedent would result in different probability estimates for profile membership. The DU3STEP command was also used to model outcomes in Mplus, which provided ANOVA tests of categorical profile comparisons on each of the outcome variables specified. This command determined whether each profile was significantly different from other profiles on each outcome variable (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014).

Sample 2 and Sample 3: Latent Transition Analyses

Lastly, a LTA was performed to determine profile transitions between two time points in Samples 2 and 3. In each LTA, the relationship between the categorical latent profile variables at two time points was estimated through a logistic regression. A 3-step estimation procedure was conducted in Mplus so that the latent profile variables between two time points were estimated independently. In other words, the latent profiles were formed purely based on the observed indicators at the particular point in time (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014).

The first step involved estimating the LPA measurement model at Time 1 using the parameter estimates obtained from the final confirmatory LPA models, and obtaining the most likely profile membership variable in Time 1 (P1; i.e., a categorical latent profile membership variable). The second step involved estimating the LPA measurement model at Time 2 – also constraining the parameter estimates using values obtained from the final confirmatory LPA models – and saving the most likely profile membership variable in Time 2 (P2; i.e., a categorical latent profile membership variable). Finally, the third step involved a logistic regression of P2 on P1, thus providing the profile transition probabilities from Time 1 to Time 2.

After conducting LTA models in Sample 2 and Sample 3, an additional series of LTA models were conducted by including one covariate at a time. An inclusion of covariates instructs Mplus to also conduct multinomial logistic regression analyses to determine the extent to which covariate(s) influenced the profile transition probabilities from Time 1 to Time 2. Specifically, I used the LTA calculator on Mplus to calculate the probabilities with which individuals would transition to other profiles or stay in the same profile at low, average, and high levels of the predictors and outcomes (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, demographic factors, and work productivity).

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations

Sample 1 Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Estimates, and Correlations

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations, and reliability estimates for Sample 1 variables are presented in Table 2. Mean statistics for the psychosocial Well-Being 5 components were all above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale. Specifically, Sample 1 employees reported the highest average score on social well-being (M = 3.99, SD = .84), followed by financial well-being (M = 3.96, SD = .89), purpose well-being (M = 3.92, SD = .80), and community well-being (M = 3.69, SD = .84). Additionally, these well-being scales had adequate internal consistency reliabilities based on the Cronbach's alpha estimates reported above (and in Table 2). However, social well-being had a relatively lower internal consistency (.70) probably because there were fewer items (i.e., 4 items) in the scale (Cortina, 1993). Overall, these results indicated that this U.S. population-based sample of employees perceived above-average levels of well-being in different aspects of life experience.

The bivariate correlations among the four psychosocial well-being variables were all significant ($p < .01$). The largest correlation was found between purpose and social well-being (r = .57), followed by the relationships between purpose and community well-being (r = .50), purpose and financial well-being (r = .42), social and financial well-being (r = .41), social and community well-being (r

= .41), and financial and community well-being (*r* = .39). Even though these four well-being constructs were related to one another, they were not so strongly related to the extent that they were redundant, thus further supporting previous research that these are theoretically related but distinct constructs (Sears et al., 2014), and that profile analyses determining the occurrences of level and shape profiles (or response patterns) would be reasonable.

Summary. Among Sample 1 employees, the average levels of psychosocial well-being (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community) were above the mid-point of a 5-point scale; in most cases, they were very close to 4. These four psychosocial well-being variables were also significantly (positively) related to each other; the correlation coefficients ranged from .39 to .57.

Sample 2 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates

Descriptive statistics, including ranges, means, standard deviations, and reliability estimates for Sample 2 variables in Time 1 (2014) and Time 2 (2015) are presented in Table 3. Among Sample 2 employees, the mean statistics for the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables were all above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale. Sample 2 employees had the highest average score on social well-being (*M* = 4.03, *SD* = .75 in Time 1; *M* = 4.07, *SD* = .76 in Time 2), followed by financial well-being (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = .85 in Time 1; *M* = 4.03, *SD* = .81 in Time 2), community well-being (*M* = 3.86, *SD* = .74 in Time 1; *M* = 3.94, *SD* = .75 in Time 2), and purpose well-being (*M* = 3.80, *SD* = .72 in Time 1; *M* = 3.84, *SD* = .74 in Time 2). These psychosocial well-being scales had satisfactory internal consistency estimates based on Cronbach's alpha ranging from .82 to .84 for purpose well-being, .75 to .77 for social well-being, .74 to .75 for financial well-being, and .84 to .85 for community well-being.

In terms of the different dimensions of physical well-being, physical health perceptions among Sample 2 employees were also above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale. The mean values were 3.67 (*SD* = .82) in Time 1 and 3.72 (*SD* = .82) in Time 2. The 4-item physical health perceptions scale also had satisfactory levels of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha ranged from .85 to .86). Disease burden and tobacco use were highly skewed variables because of the zero-inflated count distributions. On average, Sample 2 employees reported having 1.11 health conditions (*SD* = 1.42) in Time 1 and 1 health condition (*SD* = 1.35) in Time 2, and using .10 types of tobacco products (*SD* = .44) in Time 1, and .08 types of tobacco products (*SD* = .39) in Time 2. On average, Sample 2 employees reported exercising for 30 or more minutes per day for 3.19 days (*SD* = 2.15) in the past week in Time 1, and for 3.22 days (*SD* = 2.22) in the past week in Time 2. Lastly, Sample 2 employees had an average body mass index (BMI) value of 27.35 (*SD* = 6.49) in Time 1 and 27.41 (*SD* = 6.53) in Time 2.

For work-related variables, a large majority of Sample 2 employees reported being satisfied with their current job or the work that they did (90.9% satisfied in Time 1; 92.2% satisfied in Time 2). The average levels of perceived organizational support (POS) were also skewed (*M* = 8.50, *SD* = 2.10 in Time 1;

M = 8.62, *SD* = 1.97 in Time 2), thus suggesting a large number of Sample 2 employees perceived high levels of support from their organization.

In terms of demographic factors, as described in Chapter 5, the endorsement for different monthly household income categories was quite evenly distributed among Sample 2 employees, and most employees either had a college degree or a post-graduate degree. A large majority of Sample 2 employees were employed full-time - for 30 hours or more per week (86.9% in Time 1 and 87.7% in Time 2). The average age of Sample 2 employees was 42.77 years old (*SD* = 12.31) for those who responded at Time 1, and 41.49 years old (*SD* = 12.01) for those who responded at Time 2. Most Sample 2 employees did not have any children living at home (37.8% in Time 1; 38.1% in Time 2), followed by 2 children (16.7 in Time 1; 16.4% in Time 2), 1 child (15.2% in Time 1; 16.1% in Time 2), and 3 children (5.1% in Time 1 and Time 2).

Lastly, regarding work productivity variables, Sample 2 employees reported fairly high levels of self-rated job performance (*M* = 8.60, *SD* = 1.26 in Time 1; *M* = 8.63, *SD* = 1.22 in Time 2). Absenteeism was also a highly skewed and zero-inflated variable in both time points. That is, Sample 2 employees reported an average of .34 missed work days due to problems with their own physical or mental health (*SD* = 1.46) in Time 1, and .35 missed work days (*SD* = 1.75) in Time 2. Presenteeism was relatively more normally distributed among Sample 2 employees. With a minimum score of 0 and a maximum possible score of 22, their summed presenteeism scores averaged at 12.83 (*SD* = 2.17) in Time 1 and 12.63 (*SD* = 2.13) in Time 2.

Summary. Similar to Sample 1 employees, Sample 2 employees also experienced very high psychosocial well-being (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community). Their average psychosocial well-being scores were close to 4 on a 5-point scale at both time points. Notably, Sample 2 employees also largely experienced job satisfaction, high levels of POS and self-rated job performance, and low levels of disease burden, tobacco use, and absenteeism. Overall, the mean values of the variables presented in Table 3 (i.e., Well-Being 5, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity) were similar over time (i.e., Time 1 versus Time 2).

Sample 2 Correlations

Table 4 presents the cross-sectional correlation matrix of study variables in 2014 (Time 1; values below the diagonal) and in 2015 (Time 2; values above the diagonal). Among the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables, the correlations were all significant ($p < .01$). The strongest correlation was found between purpose and social well-being ($r = .65$ in Time 1, $r = .66$ in Time 2), followed by the relationships between purpose and community well-being ($r = .59$ in Time 1, $r = .61$ in Time 2), social and community well-being ($r = .57$ in Time 1, $r = .60$ in Time 2), financial and community well-being ($r = .50$ in Time 1, $r = .52$ in Time 2), social and financial well-being ($r = .49$ in Time 1, $r = .52$ in Time 2), and purpose and financial well-being ($r = .44$ in Time 1, $r = .49$ in Time 2).

Physical health perceptions (one of the Well-Being 5 physical indicators) were also significantly related to the other four Well-Being 5 variables (r ranged from .48 to .67 in Time 1, and from .49 to .67 in Time 2; $p < .01$). The other physical well-being indicators were also significantly correlated with the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables. That is, employees with lower disease burden, lower tobacco use, greater exercise frequency, and lower BMI tend to score higher on purpose, social, financial, and community well-being.

With the exception of age, all other predictor and outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, POS, income, education, number of children, self-rated job performance, absenteeism, and presenteeism) were significantly related to the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables. Specifically, age was not related to purpose or social well-being in Time 1, and it was not related to social well-being in Time 2.

Table 5 presents the longitudinal correlation matrix of study variables between 2014 (Time 1) and 2015 (Time 2). The correlations of the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables between Time 1 and Time 2 were quite strong ($r = .60$ for purpose, $r = .64$ for social, $r = .67$ for financial, and $r = .68$ for community; $p < .01$). These values also provide some evidence for test-retest reliability.

With one exception (i.e., age and social well-being), the predictor variables at Time 1 were all significantly correlated with the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables at Time 2. Better physical well-being (i.e., stronger physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, lower tobacco use, greater exercise frequency, and lower BMI) and more positive work-related factors (i.e., higher job satisfaction and higher POS) at Time 1 were related to stronger purpose, social, financial, and community well-being at Time 2. Also, Sample 2 employees with higher income, higher level of completed education, and those who were older at Time 1 tend to have stronger purpose, social, financial, and community well-being at Time 2. Interestingly, employees with more children living at home at Time 1 had lower social and financial well-being, but higher community well-being at Time 2.

Finally, the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables at Time 1 were significantly related to work productivity outcomes at Time 2 (with two exceptions). That is, employees with stronger purpose, social, financial, and community well-being at Time 1 tend to have higher self-rated job performance and lower presenteeism at Time 2. Those with stronger financial and community well-being at Time 1 also experienced less absenteeism at Time 2.

Summary. The four psychosocial well-being variables: purpose, social, financial, and community well-being were significantly and positively related to one another; the correlation coefficients ranged from .44 to .66, and the correlations were similar between Time 1 and Time 2. Test-retest reliability between Time 1 and Time 2 ranged from .60 to .68 for these four psychosocial well-being variables. Both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses revealed significant correlations between these four psychosocial well-being variables and the hypothesized profile predictors and outcomes (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity), thus providing preliminary support for the study hypotheses.

Sample 3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates

Descriptive statistics, including ranges, means, standard deviations, and reliability estimates for Sample 3 variables in Time 1 (2014) and Time 2 (2015) are presented in Table 6. The mean statistics for the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables were above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale among Sample 3 employees. Similar to Sample 2 employees, Sample 3 employees had the highest overall score on social well-being (M = 3.92, SD = .82 in Time 1; M = 3.94, SD = .83 in Time 2), followed by financial well-being (M = 3.80, SD = .93 in Time 1; M = 3.89, SD = .90 in Time 2), community well-being (M = 3.79, SD = .78 in Time 1; M = 3.85, SD = .80 in Time 2), and purpose well-being (M = 3.64, SD = .80 in Time 1; M = 3.69, SD = .85 in Time 2). These psychosocial well-being scales also had satisfactory internal consistency estimates. The Cronbach's alpha ranged from .83 to .87 for purpose well-being, .77 to .78 for social well-being, .76 to .77 for financial well-being, and .84 to .86 for community well-being.

Among Sample 3 employees, their average physical health perceptions were also above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale. The mean values were 3.60 (SD = .84) in Time 1 and 3.54 (SD = .88) in Time 2. The internal consistency estimates for the 4-item scale were satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha ranged from .85 to .87). Similar to Sample 2 employees, disease burden and tobacco use were highly skewed among Sample 3 employees because of the zero-inflated count distributions. Overall, they reported an average of 1.26 health conditions (*SD* = 1.40) in Time 1 and 1.26 health conditions (*SD* = 1.50) in Time 2. They also reported using an average of .34 types of tobacco products (*SD* = .71) in Time 1, and .29 types of tobacco products (*SD* = .68) in Time 2. In terms of exercise frequency, Sample 3 employees reported exercising for 30 or more minutes per week for an average of 3.15 days (*SD* = 2.36) in the past week in Time 1, and 2.99 days (*SD* = 2.31) in the past week in Time 2. They also had an average BMI value of 30.13 (*SD* = 6.16) in Time 1 and 30.81 (*SD* = 6.91) in Time 2.

For work-related factors, a large majority of Sample 3 employees reported being satisfied with their current job or the work that they did (91.5% in Time 1; 91.7% in Time 2). The average levels of POS were highly skewed on a 10-point scale (*M* = 8.40, *SD* = 2.18 in Time 1; *M* = 8.34, *SD* = 2.26 in Time 2). These mean values suggest that most Sample 3 employees perceived high levels of support from their organization and believed that their organization cared about their well-being to a great extent.

As described in Chapter 5, the most frequently endorsed monthly household income category was $4,000 to $4,999 (9.8%) in Time 1, and $5,000 to $7,499 in Time 2 (10.3%). Other common income categories were $5,000 to $7,499 (8.7%) and $3,000 to $3,999 (8.4%) in Time 1, and $4,000 to $4,999 (8.3%) and $3,000 to $3,999 (7.6%) in Time 2. Most of the Sample 3 employees had a high school degree or diploma, followed by some college, and a college degree. More than 90% of Sample 3 employees were employed full-time for 30 hours or more per week (97% in Time 1 and 90.4% in Time 2). Sample 3 employees were, on average, slightly older than Sample 2 employees. The average age of Sample 3 employees was 47.65 years old (*SD* = 11.05) for those who responded at Time 1, and 47.13 years old (*SD* = 11.00) for those who responded at Time 2. Most Sample 3 employees did not have any children living at home (30.8% in Time 1; 27.8% in Time 2), followed by 1 child (16.5% in Time 1; 15.5% in Time 2), 2 children (14.6% in Time 1; 12.9% in Time 2), and 3 children (4.3% in Time 1; 4.5% in Time 2).

Finally, regarding work productivity variables, Sample 3 employees reported very high levels of self-rated job performance (*M* = 9.14, *SD* = 1.16 in Time 1; *M* = 9.14, *SD* = 1.13 in Time 2) on a 0 to 10 scale. Absenteeism was also a highly skewed and zero-inflated variable in both time points. Sample 3 employees reported an average of .35 missed work days due to problems with their own physical or mental health (*SD* = 2.24) in Time 1 and .41 missed work days (*SD* = 2.48) in Time 2. Presenteeism was more normally distributed than absenteeism among Sample 3 employees. On a 0 to 22 point scale, Sample 3 employees had presenteeism scores ranging from 1 to 18 and averaging at 10.09 (*SD* = 1.91) in Time 1, and ranging from 0 to 17 and averaging at 10.06 (*SD* = 1.70) in Time 2.

Summary. Sample 3 employees experienced very positive psychosocial well-being (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community). Their average psychosocial well-being scores were close to 4 on a 5-point scale at both time points. Notably, Sample 3 employees also largely experienced job satisfaction, high levels of POS and self-rated job performance, and low levels of disease burden, tobacco use, and absenteeism. Overall, the mean values of the variables presented in Table 3 (i.e., Well-Being 5, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity) were similar over time.

Sample 3 Correlations

Table 7 presents the cross-sectional correlation matrix of study variables in 2014 (Time 1; values below the diagonal) and in 2015 (Time 2; values above the diagonal). Among the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables, the correlations were all statistically significant ($p < .01$). The strongest correlation was found between purpose and social well-being ($r = .68$ in Time 1, $r = .72$ in Time 2), followed by the relationships between purpose and community well-being ($r = .62$ in Time 1, $r = .68$ in Time 2), social and community well-being ($r = .58$ in Time 1, $r = .65$ in Time 2), purpose and financial well-being ($r = .53$ in Time 1, $r = .57$ in Time 2), social and financial well-being ($r = .52$ in Time 1, $r = .57$ in Time 2), and financial and community well-being ($r = .49$ in Time 1, $r = .54$ in Time 2).

Physical health perceptions (one of the Well-Being 5 physical indicators) were also significantly related to the other four Well-Being 4 variables. The correlation coefficients ranged from .51 to .70 in Time 1, and from .57 to .74 in Time 2. The other physical well-being dimensions were also significantly correlated with the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables. That is, Sample 3 employees who reported lower disease burden, lower tobacco use, higher exercise frequency, and lower BMI were more likely to experience greater purpose, social, financial, and community well-being.

With a few exceptions, most of the other predictors and outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, POS, income, age, self-rated job performance, and presenteeism) were significantly related to the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables. Interestingly, education was not related to any of psychosocial well-being variables in Time 1 and Time 2. Absenteeism was not related to any of the psychosocial well-being variables in Time 1, and was only related to purpose and social well-being in Time 2. Additionally, the number of children living at home was related to social and financial well-being in both time points, but not to purpose or community well-being in either Time 1 or Time 2.

Table 8 presents the longitudinal correlation matrix of study variables between 2014 (Time 1) and 2015 (Time 2). The correlations of the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables between Time 1 and Time 2 among Sample 3 employees were similar to those among Sample 2 employees (r = .66 for purpose, r = .70 for social, r =. 69 for financial, and r = .70 for community; p < .01). Again, these values provide support for test-retest reliability.

With a few exceptions, the predictor variables in Time 1 were for the most part significantly correlated with the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables in Time 2 among Sample 3 employees. Specifically, employees who had better physical well-being (i.e., stronger physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, greater exercise frequency, and lower BMI), experienced more positive work-related factors (i.e., higher job satisfaction and higher POS), and had higher income in Time 1 tend to experience stronger purpose, social, financial and community well-being at Time 2. Tobacco use and education in Time 1 were not correlated with any of the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables in Time 2. Age in Time 1 was positively related to purpose, social, and financial well-being in Time 2, but not related to community well-being in Time 2. The number of children employees had living at home in Time 1 was negatively related to social and financial well-being in Time 2, but it was not related to either purpose or community well-being in Time 2.

Finally, the psychosocial Well-Being 5 variables in Time 1 were significantly related to all of the work productivity outcomes at Time 2 ($p < .01$). Employees in Sample 3 who had stronger purpose, social, financial, and community well-being in Time 1 also reported greater job performance, lower absententeeism, and lower presenteeism in Time 2.

Summary. The four psychosocial well-being variables: purpose, social, financial, and community well-being were significantly and positively related to each other; the correlation coefficients ranged from .49 to .72, and the correlations were similar between Time 1 and Time 2. Test-retest reliability between Time 1 and Time 2 ranged from .66 to .70 for these four psychosocial well-being variables. With a few exceptions, both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses revealed significant correlations between these four psychosocial well-being variables and the hypothesized profile predictors and outcomes (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity), thus providing preliminary support for the study hypotheses.

Mixture Modeling: Latent Profile Analyses

Sample 1 Exploratory Latent Profile Analyses

A series of exploratory latent profile analyses (LPAs) were conducted using the four psychosocial well-being variables: (a) purpose, (b) social, (c) financial, and (d) community in Sample 1. Specifically, I ran seven unrestricted LPA models, specifying 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 profiles, respectively. The patterns of responses within the profiles in each exploratory LPA solution are depicted in Figures 2 to 8. Table 9 presents a summary of model comparisons between the exploratory models based on entropy values and relative fit indices for each model: Akaike information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), sample-size-adjusted BIC (aBIC), Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin (VLMR), and Lo-Mendell-Rubin (LMR) adjusted likelihood ratio test (LRT).

The entropy values provide a measure of the quality of the classification in each LPA model; values closer to 1 indicate greater classification accuracy. Table 9 indicates that the entropy values were acceptable and they ranged from .75 to .81. The relative fit indices revealed that as more profiles were estimated, the model fit improved because AIC, BIC, and aBIC decreased, and the -2 Log-Likelihood (LL) differences in the VLMR tests and LMR adjusted LRTs were statistically significant. As shown in Table 9, even though the -2LL differences in VLMR and LMR adjusted LRTs decreased as more profiles were estimated, they were all statistically significant for 2- through 8-profile solutions. These nested model likelihood ratio tests, like chi-square difference tests, are very sensitive to large sample sizes. Therefore, these significance values should be interpreted with caution. Specifically, because Sample 1 has a large sample size (N = 199,617), there was considerable statistical power to detect even minor model misfits or model misspecifications (Geiser, 2013).

Bootstrap likelihood ratio tests (BLRT) were attempted but eventually not reported in the final results. Due to the large sample size in Sample 1 (N = 199,617), BLRTs required substantial computational time and hardware processing power. Moreover, bootstrapping is arguably unnecessary because Sample 1 was randomly sampled from the U.S. population, so the sample distribution of scores should theoretically be comparable to those of the population distribution. Therefore, resampling with replacements (i.e., bootstrapping) would not necessarily provide much improvement to parameter estimates in Sample 1 (Chernick, 2011).

After careful consideration of the relative fit indices and the theoretical meanings of profiles in each solution, I decided that testing exploratory LPA models with additional profiles beyond the 8-profile solution was not necessary. Figure 9 shows that the improvement in model fit became increasingly trivial as more profiles were estimated (i.e., the plot flattens out between 6- and 8-profile solutions). Additionally, I compared the response patterns (i.e., profiles) between 6-, 7-, and 8-profile solutions, and determined the 6-profile solution was the most appropriate solution.

While the 6-profile solution added a distinct and unique response pattern to the 5-profile solution (see Profile 6 in Figure 6a), the 7-profile solution did not add a unique response pattern beyond the 6-profile solution. Specifically, the newly added profile (i.e., Profile 1 in Figure 7) had a very similar pattern of responses to Profile 2 in Figure 7. Also, the 7- and 8-profile solutions contained at least four profiles which accounted for 5% or less of the sample, thus suggesting the low prevalence of those profiles and trivial improvement in adding the new profiles.

Lastly, I considered the average latent profile probabilities for participants assigned to each latent profile in the 6-profile solution (see Table 10). Values closer to 1 on the main diagonal of the classification matrix in Table 10 represented higher precision or reliability of the profile classification. The values on the main diagonal in Table 10 ranged from .78 to .89, thus supporting the reliability of profile assignments/classifications in the 6-profile solution (Geiser, 2013). For these reasons, I determined that the 6-profile solution was the most parsimonious and theoretically meaningful solution.

In the exploratory LPA models reported in Tables 9 and 11, the profile indicators (i.e., well-being variables) were not co-varied within each profile, and the variances of indicators within- and between-profiles were not freely estimated. One of the challenges in latent mixture modeling is determining the number of freely estimated parameters that is allowed based on the number of profile indicators, and thus the amount of information available in the variance-covariance matrix. To avoid model under-identification and non-convergence, there must be enough pieces of information from the variance-covariance matrix to estimate the freed parameters. Each additional profile estimated also requires the estimation of additional parameters.

Since the current study only used 4 psychosocial well-being items, there were only (4*5)/2 = 10 pieces of information available from the variance-covariance matrix. Therefore, when I conducted exploratory LPA models with freely estimated within- and between-profile variances and co-variances among profile indicators, the LPA models with larger number of profiles (e.g., 6-, 7-, and 8-profile solutions) failed to converge because of model under-identification. Therefore, I had to balance the number of free parameters and model constraints in order to have sufficient information from the variance-covariance matrix to test the desired number of profiles.

Since the current study primarily sought to identify the different response patterns (based on item intercepts/means) in each profile, rather than to examine the within- and between-profile variances or within-profile co-variances, I allowed item intercepts (i.e., means) to be freely estimated, retained the Mplus default constraints on the variances within- and between-profiles, and left the well-being indicators uncorrelated within each profile. These model specifications allowed the exploratory LPA models to converge on a proper solution, and resulted in more reliable estimates.

Table 11 presents the mean/intercept scores for each well-being component and the composition of profiles in each of the exploratory LPA models conducted in Sample 1 (i.e., 2- through 8-profile solutions). The 6-profile model (in boldface), for the reasons described above, was selected as the final best-fitting solution. The parameter estimates for the 6-profile model were then used for cross-validation and confirmatory tests in Sample 2 and Sample 3 (described below). Based on the profile mean values presented in Table 11, Tables 12a and 12b provide the descriptions of each profile in the 6-profile model. Figure 6b depicts the six distinct patterns of responses in z-scores. The deviations of each data point from the zero value were used to determine whether the profile means fell approximately below or above the sample average.

Overall, the six final profiles represented three profiles with level differences (Profiles 1 to 3 in Tables 12a and 12b) and three other profiles with shape differences (Profiles 4 to 6 in Tables 12a and 12b). Profile 1, classified as *discontented*, accounted for about 8,705 employees or 4% of Sample 1. It was characterized by consistently lower-than-average scores across purpose, social, financial, and community well-being. Profile 2, labeled as *contented*, accounted for about 60,583 employees or 30% of Sample 1. It reflected a response pattern with consistently moderate to high scores across purpose, social, financial, and community well-being. Profile 3, *highly contented*, accounted for about 89,249 employees or 45% of Sample 1. It was characterized by consistently very high scores across purpose, social, financial, and community well-being.

Profile 4, labeled as *financial-dominant*, accounted for about 15,165 employees or 8% of Sample 1. Employees in the financial-dominant profile had lower-than-average scores on purpose, social, and community well-being, and a moderate to high score on financial well-being. On the other hand, Profile 5, the *financially insecure* profile, accounted for about 14,116 employees or 7% of Sample 1. The response pattern of Profile 5 (financially insecure) can be interpreted as an inverted version of Profile 4 (financial-dominant), where employees had moderate to high scores on purpose, social, and community well-being, and a low score on financial well-being. Lastly, about 11,795 employees or 6% of Sample 1 were classified into Profile 6, *lack of community well-being*. Employees in this profile had moderate to high scores on purpose, social, and financial well-being, and a low score on community well-being.

Summary. Based on a set of exploratory (unrestricted) LPAs of 2- through 8-profile models in Sample 1, the 6-profile solution was determined to be the best-fitting model in both theoretical and statistical terms. There were three level profiles and three shape profiles. The level profiles were discontented (Profile 1), contented (Profile 2), and highly contented (Profile 3); the shape profiles were financial-dominant (Profile 4), financially insecure (Profile 5), and lack of community well-being (Profile 6).

Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses

To cross-validate the 6-profile solution found in Sample 1, confirmatory LPA models were conducted in Sample 2 and Sample 3 using responses collected in Time 1 and Time 2. Therefore, I ran four sets of confirmatory models: (a) Sample 2 Time 1, (b) Sample 2 Time 2, (c) Sample 3 Time 1, and (d) Sample 3 Time 2. In these four sets of confirmatory analyses, I first tested fully constrained/restricted 6-profile models where intercepts (i.e., indicator means) were all fixed at the values derived from the Sample 1 exploratory 6-profile model (see boldfaced values in Table 11). A fully constrained model had 24 fixed intercepts (4 items*6 profiles=24 parameters).

After running a fully constrained model with all intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values, intercept constraints (i.e., parameters fixed at Sample 1 values) were released one at a time based on their harm to model fit. In other words, parameters that were released were freely estimated. Modification indices (MI) were used to determine which intercept constraints to release, or which intercepts should be freely estimated using Sample 2 or Sample 3 responses. Larger MI values represent greater harm to model fit; therefore, the constrained parameters with the largest MI values were freely estimated in the subsequent models. These new models with at least one freely estimated intercept/mean were compared to the fully constrained model (i.e., 24 fixed intercepts at Sample 1 values) to determine if profile interpretations stayed the same. Specifically, in the first comparison model, the parameter with the largest MI value from the fully constrained model was freely estimated. In the second comparison model, two intercepts were freely estimated after I released another parameter constraint with the largest MI value from the first comparison model. In the third comparison model, three intercepts were freely estimated after I released a third parameter constraint with the largest MI value from the second comparison model. I continued this process until there was a loss in model fit improvement. In other words, as the model fit improvement became trivial after several intercept constraints were released, I stopped releasing additional intercept constraints in order to retain more parsimonious models (i.e., less freely estimated parameters results in greater parsimony).

Confirmatory LPA Models - Sample 2 Time 1. Table 13 presents model comparisons between a fully constrained model and five comparison models in Sample 2, which were conducted based on Time 1 responses. After each intercept constraint was freed, -2LL, -2LL differences, AIC, BIC, aBIC, and entropy values were used to determine the extent to which model fit improved.

In this set of confirmatory models, a total of five intercept constraints were incrementally freed based on the largest MI values. Freeing these intercepts means that they were no longer fixed at the values obtained from Sample 1; instead they were freely estimated based on Sample 2 Time 1 responses. The freed intercepts were community well-being in Profile 3 (highly contented), purpose well-being in Profile 3, community well-being in Profile 1 (discontented), purpose well-being in Profile 2 (contented), and purpose well-being in Profile 6 (lack of community well-being). As shown in Table 13, the -2LL difference values decreased as more intercepts were freed, and the improvement in model fit became more trivial after the fifth intercept constraint was freed. The entropy values remained essentially the same from the fully constrained model to the last comparison model with five intercept constraints freed. Table 14 presents the mean values for each psychosocial well-being variable in each profile and the profile composition of each confirmatory model. Within each confirmatory model, the freely estimated intercept values are in boldface.

Table 15 presents a set of comparisons between the constrained intercept estimates derived from Sample 1 and the freely estimated parameters in Sample 2 Time 1. These comparisons were used to examine the extent to which freeing the intercept constraints would change the meaning of the respective well-being profiles established in Sample 1. In Table 15, the constrained and freely estimated intercept values were presented and I noted that the differences in intercepts did not change the interpretation of the profiles. Cross-validation was therefore successful.

Figure 10 also depicts the response patterns using the intercept values obtained in the fifth comparison model (i.e., five out of 24 intercepts were freely estimated) – the profile patterns remained the same as the 6-profile solution in Sample 1. Also, the profile classification quality was reliable because the diagonal values on the classification matrix presented in Table 16 were very high (ranging from .81 to .92). Lastly, because additional freed constraints beyond those listed in Table 13 did not yield significant changes to model fit, I determined that the fifth comparison model, which had five freed intercepts and 19 intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values (i.e., Model 6 in Table 13), was the final confirmatory model. Intercept values from this final confirmatory model were used to fix the LPA measurement models in subsequent analyses of predictors, outcomes, and profile stability.

I also conducted an exploratory (unrestricted) LPA model in Sample 2 Time 1 in which all 24 intercepts were freely estimated (i.e., none of the intercepts were fixed at Sample 1 values). Table 13 presents the change in fit indices when these 24 intercepts were freed. Figure 11 depicts the response patterns based on the 24 freely estimated intercept values presented in Table 14. According to the illustrated patterns and the intercept values, 5 out of 6 profiles found in Sample 1 were replicated in this exploratory model. Specifically, Profiles 1 to 5 were replicated, but not Profile 6. However, the profile classification quality for this exploratory model was low (i.e., low entropy), and the average change in -2LL per degree of freedom or for each freed intercept was substantially smaller than the -2LL differences in other comparison models. Therefore, the final confirmatory model (i.e., Model 6 in Table 13) was determined to be the more parsimonious solution which also had a profile structure that theoretically conformed to the one in Sample 1.

Confirmatory LPA Models – Sample 2 Time 2. The second set of confirmatory models was conducted using Time 2 responses gathered from Sample 2 employees. Table 17 presents model comparisons between a fully constrained model and seven comparisons models. A total of seven intercept constraints were freed incrementally based on the largest MI values. Freeing these intercepts means that they were no longer fixed at the values obtained from Sample 1; instead they were freely estimated based on Sample 2 Time 2 responses. The freed intercepts were community well-being in Profile 3 (highly contented), purpose well-being in Profile 5 (financially insecure), community well-being in Profile 2 (contented), social well-being in Profile 3, social well-being in Profile 2, social well-being in Profile 4 (financial-dominant), and financial well-being in Profile 3. Table 17 indicates that the -2LL difference values decreased as more intercept constraints were freed, and the improvement in model fit became quite small after the seventh intercept was freed. The entropy value increased slightly from the fully constrained model (.83) to the last comparison model with seven freed intercepts (.85). Table 18 presents the mean values for each well-being indicator in each profile and the composition of profiles (i.e., size and proportions) for each confirmatory model. Within each confirmatory model, the freely estimated intercepts/means are in boldface.

Table 19 presents comparisons between the constrained intercept estimates obtained from Sample 1 and the freely estimated parameters in Sample 2 Time 2. After comparing the constrained and freed intercepts, I determined that the differences in intercepts did not lead to a different interpretation of the respective profiles. Therefore, the confirmatory models were successful in cross-validating the 6-profile solution from Sample 1.

Figure 12 also depicts the response patterns using the intercept values from the seventh comparison model (i.e., 7 out of 24 parameters were freely estimated and 17 out of 24 parameters were fixed at Sample 1 values), and it shows that the profile patterns remained the same as the 6-profile solution in Sample 1. Additionally, Table 20 indicates that the profile classification quality of the last confirmatory model (i.e., Model 8 in Table 17) was reliable because the diagonal values on the classification matrix were very high (ranging from .84 to .92). Because releasing additional intercept constraints beyond those listed in Table 17 did not yield significant model fit improvement, the seventh comparison model with seven freed intercepts and 17 intercepts constrained at Sample 1 values (i.e., Model 8 in Table 17) was determined to be the final confirmatory model. Intercept values from this final confirmatory model were used for subsequent analyses.

Table 17 also presents the change in fit indices when all 24 intercepts were freely estimated in Sample 2 Time 2. In other words, this represents an exploratory and unrestricted model where none of the intercepts were fixed at Sample 1 values. Figure 13 illustrates the response patterns based on the 24 freely estimated intercept values presented in Table 18. This exploratory LPA model replicated the six profiles obtained in Sample 1. That is, based on the intercept values and the depicted response patterns, the 6-profile structures derived from both Sample 1 and Sample 2 Time 2 had the same interpretation. However, since the average change in -2LL per degree of freedom or for each freed intercept was very small compared to the -2LL differences in other comparison models, the more parsimonious solution, or the final confirmatory model (i.e., Model 8 in Table 17), was used to proceed with subsequent analyses.

Confirmatory LPA Models – Sample 3 Time 1. The third set of confirmatory model tests was conducted using Time 1 responses collected from Sample 3 employees. Table 21 presents the comparisons in model fit and entropy values between a fully constrained model and five comparison models. A total of five intercept constraints were freed incrementally based on the largest MI values. Freeing these intercepts means that they were no longer fixed at the values obtained from Sample 1; instead they were freely estimated based on Sample 3 Time 1 responses. The freed intercepts were community well-being in Profile 1 (discontented), purpose well-being in Profile 2 (contented), community well-being in Profile 3 (highly contented), purpose well-being in Profile 5 (financially insecure), and purpose well-being in Profile 3. As more intercept constraints were released, the -2LL difference values decreased, thus indicating that model fit improvement was becoming more trivial as more intercept constraints were freed. In fact, -2LL difference became very small after the fifth intercept was freed. The entropy values increased slightly from the fully constrained model (.81) to the last comparison model with five freely estimated intercepts (.83). Table 22 presents the mean values for each well-being component in each profile and the profile composition in each confirmatory model. Within each confirmatory model, the freely estimated intercepts are in boldface.

In Table 23, I compared the constrained intercept estimates from Sample 1 and the freed intercept parameters in Sample 3 Time 1. As noted in Table 23, the changes in intercept values did not change the meaning of the respective well-being profiles. Therefore, the confirmatory models have successfully cross-validated the 6-profile solution obtained from Sample 1. In other words, freeing the five intercept constraints led to significant model fit improvement, but the newly estimated parameters (i.e., no longer fixed at Sample 1 values) did not change the interpretation of the original profiles.

The response patterns based on the intercept values in the fifth comparison model, where 5 out of 24 intercept constraints were released (i.e., Model 6 in Table 21), are plotted in Figure 14. The figure shows that the profile patterns remained the same as the 6-profile solution in Sample 1. In addition, the classification matrix presented in Table 24 indicates that the profile classification quality of the last confirmatory model (i.e., Model 6 in Table 21) was reliable because the diagonal values ranged from .81 to .92. Since releasing additional intercepts beyond those listed in Table 21 did not provide substantial improvement in model fit, the fifth comparison model with five freely estimated intercepts and 19 intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values (i.e., Model 6 in Table 21) was selected as the final confirmatory model. The intercept values from this final confirmatory model (see Table 22) were used for subsequent analyses.

Lastly, Table 21 also presents the change in fit indices when all 24 intercept constraints were freed in Sample 3 Time 1 (i.e., an exploratory and unrestricted model). Figure 15 plots the response patterns based on the 24 freely estimated intercept values presented in Table 22. Similar to Sample 2 Time 2, this exploratory LPA model successfully replicated the six profiles derived from Sample 1, such that the interpretation for each profile was the same between Sample 1 and Sample 3 Time 1. However, the average change in -2LL per degree of freedom or for each freed intercept was very small compared to the -2LL differences in other comparison models with intercept constraints. Therefore, the final confirmatory model (i.e., Model 6 in Table 21) was selected as the more parsimonious solution that not only theoretically conformed to the 6-profile structure in Sample 1, but also demonstrated reliable classification quality.

Confirmatory LPA Models – Sample 3 Time 2. The last set of confirmatory LPA model tests was conducted using Time 2 responses collected from Sample 3 employees. Table 25 presents the comparisons between a fully constrained model and three comparison models. A total of three intercept constraints were incrementally freely based on the largest MI values obtained in the LPA solutions. Freeing these intercepts means that they were no longer fixed at the values obtained from Sample 1; instead they were freely estimated based on Sample 3 Time 2 responses. The freed intercepts were purpose well-being in Profile 5 (financially insecure), community well-being in Profile 3 (highly contented), and social well-being in Profile 4 (financial-dominant). The -2LL difference values became very small after the third intercept constraint was freed, and additional intercept releases beyond those listed in Table 25 did not provide substantial model fit improvement. The entropy values increased slightly from the fully constrained model (.82) to the third comparison model where three intercepts were freely estimated (.83). Table 26 presents the mean values for each psychosocial well-being variable in each profile and the composition of profiles in each confirmatory model. Within each confirmatory model, the freely estimated intercept values are in boldface.

In Table 27, I provided a comparison between the constrained intercept values from Sample 1 and the freed intercept values in Sample 3 Time 2. These comparisons revealed that freeing the intercept constraints (i.e., parameters fixed at Sample 1 values) did not change the meaning of the respective well-being profiles established in Sample 1. Therefore, it can be concluded that cross-validation of the 6-profile solution in Sample 1 was successful.

The response patterns of the third comparison model (i.e., Model 4 in Table 25), where three out of 24 intercepts were freely estimated (and 21 intercepts were fixed at Sample 1 values), are also plotted in Figure 16. This figure supports the conclusion that cross-validation was successful because the interpretation of the 6-profile solution remained the same as it was for the 6-profile solution in Sample 1. Moreover, the profile classification matrix presented in Table 28 indicates that the classification quality for the third comparison model (i.e., Model 4 in Table 25) was reliable based on the diagonal values ranging from .78 to .92. Based on these results, the third comparison model, which had three freed intercepts, was determined to be the final confirmatory model. Therefore, intercept values from this final confirmatory model were used in subsequent analyses of predictors, outcomes, and profile stability.

Finally, I conducted an exploratory LPA model in Sample 3 Time 2 by allowing all 24 intercepts to be freely estimated. Table 25 presents the change in fit indices when these 24 intercepts were freed. Figure 17 also plots the response patterns based on the 24 freely estimated intercept values presented in Table 26. Based on Figure 17 and the intercept values in Table 26, I concluded that three profiles with level differences (i.e., Profiles 1 to 3) were fully replicated, while the other three profiles with shape differences (i.e., Profiles 4 to 6) were semi-replicated. That is, the shape profiles were not as distinct as they were in Sample 1 because the mean values did not differ as much between the highest/the lowest and the remaining well-being indicators. For example, in Profile 4 (financial-dominant), the score for financial well-being was still the highest, but the score difference from other well-being indicators was not as strong as it was in Sample 1.

Because this exploratory LPA model did not significantly improve the profile classification quality, and the average change in -2LL per degree of freedom or for each freed intercept was very small comparing to the -2LL differences in other comparison models (see Table 25), this model was not selected as the final model for subsequent analyses. The third comparison model with only three freed intercepts (i.e., Model 4 in Table 25) was instead selected as the final confirmatory model for subsequent analyses because it was a more parsimonious solution, and it had a profile structure which aligned (to a greater degree) with the interpretation of the 6-profile solution obtained in Sample 1.

Summary. According to the four sets of confirmatory models analyzed using Time 1 and Time 2 responses from Samples 2 and 3, cross-validation was successful and it can be concluded that the 6-profile solution obtained from Sample 1 was replicated among employees in Samples 2 and 3. To improve model fit, constraints of some of the profile intercepts (fixed at Sample 1 values) were incrementally released and the interpretation of the six psychosocial well-being profiles remained the same (i.e., the response patterns did not change). Parsimony (i.e., less freely estimated parameters) was favored over the release of additional constraints when model fit improvement became trivial.

Antecedents of Profile Membership

To examine the three categories of predictors of profile membership: (a) physical well-being dimensions, (b) work-related factors, and (c) demographic characteristics, multinomial logistic regressions were conducted in Mplus using the R3STEP command to regress the categorical profile membership variables on the predictors. Estimates from these multinomial logistic regressions were provided in logit form. For easier interpretation, I transformed some of the logit estimates to odds ratio form by taking the exponential of logit, and the odds ratios were then transformed to probabilities (i.e., odds/(1+odds).

Because the categorical profile membership variables are ipsative in nature, logit estimates were available for only five out of six profiles, with the remaining profile serving as the reference profile. Specifically, the profile membership variables pertained to only 6 values (i.e., 6 profiles), and they cannot go outside the bounds of 1 to 6. Therefore, only 5 estimates were needed for the models to converge on a proper solution.

For easier and simpler comparisons, Profile 1 (discontented) was selected as the primary comparison/reference profile across all models because it had the lowest scores across all four psychosocial well-being indicators. Additionally, to better understand how profile membership differed across different levels of the predictors, I selected representative low (-1 SD), medium (means), and high (+1 SD) values for each predictor and computed the logit, odds, and probabilities of profile membership for each of those values. Note that in some instances, because the variables were highly skewed and zero-inflated (including disease burden, tobacco use, and number of children), the values for high levels were computed at the level of +3 SD. For categorical variables, including income and education, the most frequently endorsed categories were selected as the representative values. For pairwise comparison purposes, I also used Profiles 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 as the reference profiles to determine whether the predictors explained significant differences in each possible pair of profiles.

Physical Well-Being

I first analyzed the physical well-being dimensions as profile predictors by entering each dimension in separate models. Tables 29, 30, 31, and 32 present the results for cross-sectional multinomial logistic regressions between physical well-being dimensions and categorical profile membership for Sample 2 Time 1, Sample 2 Time 2, Sample 3 Time 1, and Sample 3 Time 2, respectively. Additionally, Tables 33 and 34 present the results for longitudinal multinomial logistic regressions between Time 1 physical well-being dimensions and Time 2 profile membership in Sample 2 and Sample 3 respectively.

Tables 29 to 34 show that physical health perceptions significantly predicted profile membership. Based on the logit estimates, the strongest difference was found between Profile 3 (highly contented) and Profile 1 (discontented), and the second strongest difference was found between Profile 3 (highly contented) and Profile 4 (financial-dominant). As physical health perceptions increased, the probabilities with which employees belonged to Profile 3 (highly contented) increased, while the probabilities with each employees belonged to Profile 1 (discontented) or Profile 4 (financial-dominant) decreased. Even though the results were not nearly as strong, similar relationships were found for other profiles, such that increases in physical health perceptions were related to increases in the probabilities that employees belonged to Profile 2 (contented), Profile 4 (financial-dominant), Profile 5 (financially insecure), and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being), while the probabilities for the reference profile (i.e., Profile 1, discontented) decreased.

Using profiles other than Profile 1 as the reference profiles, physical health perceptions also consistently explained significant differences between profiles, including Profile 2 (contented) and Profile 3 (highly contented), and Profile 2 (contented) and Profile 4 (financial-dominant). Physical health perceptions also strongly distinguished Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profile 4 (financial-dominant), Profile 5 (financially insecure), and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being).

Disease burden was also, for the most part, predictive of profile membership. Overall, as disease burden increased, the probabilities with which employees belonged to Profiles 2 to 6 decreased, among which Profile 3 had the smallest probabilities, and the probabilities increased for Profile 1. Across the cross-sectional and longitudinal findings in both Sample 2 and Sample 3, it appears that disease burden best distinguished membership between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly contented), followed by Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 2 (contented), and Profile 3 (financial-dominant) and Profile 5 (financially insecure).

Tobacco use was only able to consistently distinguish Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented) and 3 (highly contented) in cross-sectional regressions. As tobacco used increased, the probabilities for Profiles 2 and 3 decreased, and they increased for Profile 1. Tobacco use also, in some cases, distinguished Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profile 4 (financial-dominant) and Profile 5 (financially insecure).

Exercise frequency was generally more strongly related to profile membership in cross-sectional regressions than longitudinal regressions. Overall, as employees exercised for more days per week, the probabilities with which they belonged to Profiles 2 to 6 increased (and the Profile 1 probabilities decreased as well). Across both samples, exercise frequency only consistently distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 3 (highly contented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure) in cross-sectional regressions, and only distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 3 (highly contented) in longitudinal regressions. In some cases, exercise frequency also explained significant differences between Profile 2 (contented) and Profile 3 (highly contented), and it distinguished Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profiles 4 (financial-dominant), 5 (financially insecure), and 6 (lack of community well-being). Based on the magnitude of the logit estimates, it appears that employees who exercised more frequently were more likely to be classified into Profile 3 (highly contented) than the others.

As for BMI, it significantly distinguished probabilities for Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented) and 3 (highly contented) in both samples and in both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. Specifically, as BMI increased, the probabilities with which employees belonged to Profiles 2 and 3 decreased, while the probabilities they belonged to Profile 1 increased. When Profile 3 (highly contented) was the reference profile, BMI explained significant profile membership differences between Profile 3 and Profile 2 (contented), Profile 4 (financial-dominant), Profile 5 (financially insecure), and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being). Specifically, employees with higher BMI were more likely to be in Profiles 2, 4, 5, or 6, and less likely to be in Profile 3.

Finally, I conducted another series of cross-sectional and longitudinal regressions between physical well-being dimensions and profile membership in both Sample 2 and Sample 3 by including all five physical well-being indicators into the same models. These analyses allowed an examination of whether any of the physical well-being variables uniquely predicted profile membership. These findings are presented in Tables 35 to 40. The results indicate that physical health perceptions most strongly distinguished profile membership in both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. Disease burden and BMI were the next best unique predictors of profile membership (primarily in the cross-sectional models). The remaining variables (i.e., tobacco use and exercise frequency) did not consistently and uniquely predict profile membership when other physical well-being variables were included in the same models.

Work-Related Factors

The second set of multinomial regressions was conducted using work-related factors: job satisfaction and POS as individual predictors of categorical profile membership. Each predictor was analyzed in separate models. Results for the cross-sectional regressions in both Sample 2 and Sample 3 from both Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Tables 41 to 44. Also, results for the longitudinal regressions between Time 1 work-related factors and Time 2 profile membership in Sample 2 and Sample 3 are presented in Tables 45 and 46 respectively.

According to the cross-sectional estimates in Tables 41 to 44, job satisfaction consistently distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), and 5 (financially insecure). As employees moved from being dissatisfied to being satisfied with their job, there were increases in the probabilities with which they belonged to Profiles 2, 3, and 5, as well as decreases in the probabilities with which they were classified into Profile 1. Job satisfaction also explained significant differences when profiles other than Profile 1 was the reference profile. Specifically, employees who were more satisfied with their job were more likely to be in Profile 3 (highly contented), followed by Profile 2 (contented), and Profile 4 (financial-dominant).

The longitudinal results in Tables 45 and 46 indicate that job satisfaction at Time 1 was only able to significantly distinguish the probabilities of Profile 1 membership from those of Profiles 2 (contented) and 3 (highly contented) at Time 2. In other words, employees who were satisfied with their job were more likely to either be in the contented or highly contented profile than those who were dissatisfied with their job. Moreover, longitudinal regressions showed that job satisfaction also significantly distinguished membership in Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profile 4 (financial-dominant), Profile 5 (financially insecure) and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being).

The results for POS were very much the same as those for job satisfaction. In the cross-sectional analyses, POS consistently predicted and distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), and 5 (financially insecure). As POS increased, the probabilities with which employees belonged to Profiles 2, 3, and 5 increased, and thus the probabilities for Profile 1 decreased. Additionally, POS predicted significant differences between Profiles 2 and 3, Profiles 2 and 4, Profiles 3 and 4, Profiles 3 and 5, and profiles 3 and 6. As POS increased, the probabilities for Profiles 2 and 3 increased the most.

The longitudinal results in Tables 45 and 46 revealed that POS scores were able to – consistently in Samples 2 and 3 – distinguish Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 3 (highly contented), Profile 2 (contented) from Profile 3 (highly contented), Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profile 4 (financial-dominant), and Profile 3 (highly contented) from Profile 5 (financially insecure). These results altogether demonstrated that employees with higher POS were more likely to belong to the highly contented or contented profile, and less likely to the financial dominant, financially insecure, or discontented profile. Even though the estimates for other pairwise comparisons were not statistically significant, the differences in probabilities from low to high levels of POS showed that an increase in POS tend to drive up the probabilities with which individuals belonged to any of the profiles other than Profile 1 (discontented) - where the well-being scores were consistently low across the four well-being dimensions.

Lastly, I included both work-related predictors in the same regression models to determine if job satisfaction and POS were unique predictors of profile membership. Tables 47 to 52 present these model estimates for both cross-sectional and longitudinal multinomial logistic regressions in Sample 2 and Sample 3. After controlling for POS, job satisfaction remained a significant predictor in distinguishing profile membership between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 2 (contented), and between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly contented). When job satisfaction was controlled, POS consistently distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 3 (highly contented), and in some cases, between Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 2 (contented), and between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure).

Demographic Characteristics

The last set of multinomial regressions was modeled using five different demographic factors: income, education, employment status, age, and number of children living at home as the antecedents of categorical profile membership. Each demographic predictor was entered in separate models. Cross-sectional regressions were first conducted using both Time 1 and Time 2 responses among Sample 2 and Sample 3 employees, and the results are presented in Tables 53 to 56. Longitudinal regressions were also conducted to model each demographic characteristics at Time 1 as the antecedent of Time 2 profile membership in Sample 2 and Sample 3. The longitudinal regression results are presented in Tables 57 and 58.

These findings indicate that monthly household income consistently distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), and 4 (financial-dominant). The strongest difference was found between Profile 1 and Profile 3. As employees' monthly household income increased, the probabilities with which they belong to Profile 2, Profile 3 and Profile 4 significantly increased as well.

Monthly household income also distinguished employees' profile membership between Profile 2 (contented)/Profile 3 (highly contented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure), such that employees with more income had greater probabilities for Profile 2 or Profile 3 than Profile 5. In one instance (Table 58), monthly household income at Time 1 significantly distinguished Profile 1 (discontented) from Profile 6 (lack of community well-being) at Time 2, such that an increase in income also increased the probabilities employees belonged to Profile 6. Overall, monthly household income was a stronger predictor of profile membership in Sample 2 than in Sample 3, because it was able to significantly distinguish a larger number of profiles in Sample 2 than in Sample 3.

Education was mainly predictive of profile membership in the cross-sectional models in Sample 2 (see Tables 53 and 54). Specifically, in cross-sectional regressions, education explained significant differences between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 2 (contented), between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly contented), and between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 4 (financial-dominant). Employees with higher levels of education were more likely to belong to Profiles 2, 3, and 4 than those with lower levels of education. In longitudinal models, education at Time 1 was only predictive of the differences in profile membership between Profile 1 and Profile 3. Using Profile 5 (financially insecure) as the reference profile, it had significant differences in probabilities with Profile 2 (contented), Profile 3 (highly contented), and Profile 4 (financial-dominant). More highly educated employees were more likely to belong to Profiles 2, 3, or 4, and less so to Profile 5.

Employment status was, for the most part, unrelated to profile membership. Employment status (full-time vs. part-time) explained differences in profile membership only in the Time 1 cross-sectional models among Sample 2 employees. Using Profile 1 (discontented) as the reference profile, full-time employees who worked 30 hours or more per week were more likely to belong to Profile 2 (contented), Profile 3 (highly contented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure) than part-time employees who worked 30 hours or less per week. However, these results were not replicated in Time 2, nor were they replicated among Sample 3 employees.

In terms of age, the most significant differences in profile membership in comparison to the discontented profile were found in the longitudinal model tested among Sample 3 employees (see Table 58). Older employees were more likely to belong to Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), 4 (financial-dominant), 5 (financially insecure) and 6 (lack of community well-being) than those who were younger. In other words, older employees were less likely to belong to Profile 1 (discontented) than those who were younger. Other common significant differences were also found when Profile 5 (financially insecure) was the reference profile. It appears from the results that, in comparison to Profile 5, older employees were more likely to be in Profile 2 (contented) or Profile 3 (highly contented).

For the last demographic predictor, the number of children living at home explained the most consistent and pronounced differences between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly contented) in both cross-sectional and longitudinal models and in both Sample 2 and Sample 3. As the number of children increased, employees were less likely to belong to Profile 3 and more likely to belong to Profile 1. Other common differences were found when Profile 5 (financially insecure) was the reference profile. That is, employees with more children were more likely to belong to the financially insecure profile, and less likely to Profile 2 (contented), Profile 3 (highly contented), or Profile 4 (financial-dominant)

Finally, I conducted a series of omnibus tests by including all five demographic factors in the same regression models to examine the extent to which each demographic characteristics uniquely explained the differences in profile membership. Tables 59 to 62 present these results for the cross-sectional models, and Tables 63 and 64 present the results for the longitudinal models. After controlling for other demographic factors, monthly household income remained a significant predictor that distinguished employees in Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), and 4 (financial-dominant) from Profile 1 (discontented). Education was only in a few cases able to uniquely predict differences between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profiles 2 (contented) and 3 (highly contented). The relationships between employment status and profile membership were largely non-significant in both samples and in both time points. There were however a few highly inflated logit estimates (see Table 64) which were likely cases of suppression due to multicollinearity.

After controlling for other demographic characteristics, age explained significant differences only between a few profiles in cross-sectional models, but it explained greater differences between profiles in longitudinal models (see Tables 63 and 64). Specifically, age at Time 1 significantly distinguished membership in Profile 1 (discontented) from Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), 4 (financial-dominant), 5 (financially insecure), and 6 (lack of community well-being) at Time 2.

Lastly, in both cross-sectional and longitudinal models, the number of children employees reported living at home consistently and uniquely predicted differences between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly discontented), and in a few instances, between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 2 (contented), between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 4 (financial-dominant), and between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being).

Summary

Overall, both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses revealed that physical well-being, work-related factors, and demographic characteristics significantly explained membership in psychosocial well-being profiles. Specifically, physical health perceptions, disease burden, exercise frequency, job satisfaction, POS, and monthly household income were consistent predictors of well-being profiles in both Sample 2 and Sample 3, as well as in both cross-sectional and longitudinal tests. These predictors most strongly and consistently distinguished membership between Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 3 (highly contented), and also in some cases between Profile 1 (discontented) and the shape profiles. In general, employees with more negative predictors were more likely to belong to the discontented profile (Profile 1) than the other well-being profiles. On the other hand, employees with more positive predictors were more likely to belong to the highly contented profile (Profile 3) than the other well-being profiles).

Outcome Differences among Profiles

I examined two different categories of profile outcomes: (a) physical well-being dimensions and (b) work productivity by conducting a series of ANOVA tests. Specifically, the categorical profile membership variable was entered as the predictor of each outcome variable. Omnibus tests were used to determine whether profile membership, in general, significantly predicted each of the outcome variables. Means and pairwise comparisons (based on the Least Significant Difference test) between every possible pair of profiles were also examined to determine the extent to which the psychosocial well-being profiles distinguished employees on physical well-being and work productivity outcomes. I performed both cross-sectional (i.e., Time 1 profiles predicting Time 1 outcomes and Time 2 profiles predicting Time 2 outcomes) and longitudinal (i.e., Time 1 profiles predicting Time 2 outcomes) ANOVAs.

Physical Well-Being

Tables 65 to 68 present the cross-sectional ANOVAs of Time 1 profiles predicting Time 1 physical well-being outcomes, and Time 2 profile predicting Time 2 physical well-being outcomes, in both Sample 2 and Sample 3. Tables 69 and 70 present the longitudinal ANOVAs of Time 1 profiles predicting Time 2 physical well-being outcomes in both Sample 2 and Sample 3. The omnibus tests of each physical well-being variable were all significant ($p < .01$ in all cross-sectional and most longitudinal ANOVAs; $p < .05$ in other longitudinal ANOVAs), thus illustrating that physical health perceptions, disease burden, tobacco use, exercise frequency, and BMI significantly differed according to profile membership. However, they did not meaningfully distinguish every pair of profiles because some pairwise comparisons were not significant.

Employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) had consistently the worst physical health perceptions, highest disease burden, greatest tobacco use, lowest exercise frequency, and the highest BMI. Conversely, employees in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) had consistently the best physical health perceptions, lowest disease burden, least tobacco use, highest exercise frequency, and the lowest BMI. As discussed below, some profiles did not significantly differ from Profile 1 or Profile 3 in some of the physical well-being outcomes – these results demonstrated the extent to which some profiles may be as unfavorable as Profile 1 (discontented), or equally as favorable as Profile 3 (highly contented).

In both cross-sectional and longitudinal ANOVAs, employees in the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) had the second worst physical health perceptions; while physical health perceptions were in many cases quite similar among employees in the contented profile (Profile 2), financially insecure profile (Profile 5), and lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6).

Disease burden differences were more distinguishable between profiles among Sample 2 employees than among Sample 3 employees. Profiles 1, 2, and 3 had significantly different disease burden than other profiles, but Profiles 4, 5, and 6 had mostly fairly similar levels of disease burden. In some cases among Sample 3 employees, disease burden was not significantly different between those in the highly contented profile (Profile 3), contented profile (Profile 2), and lack of community well-being (Profile 6).

Considering both cross-sectional and longitudinal regressions, employees in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) had comparable levels of tobacco use with employees in the contented profile (Profile 2) and lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6). In cross-sectional models, employees in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) had significantly different levels of tobacco use than those in the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) and financially insecure profile (Profile 5); but these differences were not found in longitudinal models.

There were more significant differences in exercise frequency between profiles than in tobacco use. However, interestingly, in some cases, employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) and lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) had similar exercise frequencies, but in other cases, exercises frequencies were comparable between the highly contented profile (Profile 3) and the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6). Additionally, in most cases, employees in the contented profile (Profile 2), financially insecure profile (Profile 5), and lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) had statistically similar exercise frequencies.

Differences in BMI among profiles were more pronounced in Sample 2 than in Sample 3. In other words, profile membership was a better predictor of BMI among Sample 2 employees than Sample 3 employees, but the predictions were not consistent across models. In Sample 3, employees in the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4), financially insecure profile (Profile 5), and the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) had essentially similar BMI to those in the discontented profile (Profile 1). In Sample 2, employees in the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) and discontented profile (Profile 1) had, in most cases, very similar BMI values; but there was an instance where employees in the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) and contented profile (Profile 2) had similar BMI values. Sample 2 employees in the financial-dominant profile

(Profile 4) and the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) also had statistically the same BMI values.

Work Productivity

Tables 71 to 74 present the cross-sectional ANOVAs of Time 1 profiles predicting Time 1 work productivity outcomes, and Time 2 profiles predicting Time 2 work productivity outcomes, in both Sample 2 and Sample 3. Tables 75 and 76 present the longitudinal ANOVAs of Time 1 profiles predicting Time 2 work productivity outcomes in both Samples 2 and 3. The omnibus tests for self-rated job performance and presenteeism were significant in both samples and in both cross-sectional and longitudinal tests ($p < .01$). The omnibus tests for absenteeism were all significant ($p < .01$) in Sample 2, but only in some cases in Sample 3 ($p < .05$). Therefore, self-rated job performance, presenteeism, and (for the most part) absenteeism were significant outcomes of well-being profiles. However, significant omnibus tests did not mean that all pairwise comparisons were significant. A number of profile pairs did not significantly distinguish employees on work productivity outcomes.

Overall, employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) and the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) had consistently the worst self-rated performance, and employees in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) had consistently the best self-rated job performance. Whereas, in some cases, the contented (Profile 2) or highly contented profile (Profile 3) had indistinguishable scores on self-rated job performance from the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6), in other cases, the discontented profile (Profile 1) and the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) had comparable self-rated job performance. Additionally, employees in Profile 2 (contented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure) had very similar self-rated job performance scores.

Overall, employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) had consistently the highest rates of absenteeism (i.e., missed work days due to problems with their own physical or mental health). However, in Sample 3, employees' absenteeism levels were mainly indistinguishable from those in other remaining profiles. In Sample 2, employees in the contented (Profile 2), highly contented (Profile 3), financial-dominant (Profile 4), and lack of community well-being (Profile 6) profiles had largely similar rates of absenteeism.

Employees in the discontented (Profile 1) and financial-dominant (Profile 4) profiles had, in most cases, the highest presenteeism scores, thus indicating they experienced higher productivity loss at work due to health problems and/or other stressors and barriers. Additionally, presenteeism scores were statistically largely the same among those in the discontented (Profile 1) and the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6). While the absolute scores of presenteeism were primarily the lowest among employees in the highly contented profile (Profile 3), their scores were, in a few instances, not statistically different from those in the discontented profile (Profile 1). In fact, the contented profile (Profile 2) had largely similar presenteeism scores to those of the discontented profile (Profile 1). Overall, these results indicated that well-being profiles did not clearly distinguish employees in their levels of presenteeism. It is possible that, among other reasons, these results were due to smaller sample sizes in some of the well-being profiles.

Summary

Among the two categories of profile outcomes (i.e., physical well-being and work productivity), physical health perceptions, disease burden, exercise frequency, and self-rated job performance were the most consistent and significant outcomes of profile membership across both samples and in both cross-sectional and longitudinal tests. In most cases, employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) experienced the worst outcomes (i.e., lowest physical health perceptions, highest disease burden, least exercise frequency, and lowest self-rated job performance), and those in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) experienced the best outcomes (i.e., highest physical health perceptions, least disease burden, greatest exercise frequency, and highest self-rated job performance).

Profile Stability

Profile Transitions

Latent transition analyses were conducted to examine the extent to which employees remained in the same profiles between Time 1 and Time 2. Tables 77 and 79 present the latent transition probabilities from Time 1 to Time 2 in Sample 2 and Sample 3; Tables 78 and 80 report the sample sizes corresponding to the said transition probabilities. It is important to note that the probabilities may be misleading in some cases because the sample sizes were different between Sample 2 and Sample 3 – Sample 2 has a larger matched sample between Time 1 and Time 2 than does Sample 3. For example, a 27% transition probability corresponds to 22 employees in Sample 2, and a 29% transition probability corresponds to 12 employees in Sample 3. Also, the group sizes for each profile were different, such that Profiles 2 and 3 (contented and highly contented) tend to have larger numbers of employees. Therefore, the sample sizes corresponding to the different probability values should be carefully considered as well. For example, because the profile size of Profile 2 was larger than that of Profile 1 in Time 1, an 8% transition probability from Profile 2 (contented) to Profile 3 (highly contented) corresponds to 58 employees; whereas a 10% transition probability form Profile 1 (discontented) to Profile 2 (contented) corresponds to only 7 employees.

In both Sample 2 and Sample 3, the transition probabilities were all higher on the diagonal than those on the off-diagonal in the matrices presented in Tables 77 and 79. This means that, overall, employees were more likely to stay in the same well-being profiles between Time 1 and Time 2. The largest probabilities were found in the highly contented profile (Profile 3; .83 in Sample 2 and .93 in Sample 3). That is, the probabilities with which employees remained in the same profile in Time 2 were the highest for those who were in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) in Time 1. For those who were in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) in Time 1, the second most probable profile employees were classified into during Time 2 was the contented profile (Profile 2; .16 in Sample 2 and .03 in Sample 3). The next most stable profiles were Profile 2 (contented; .79 in Sample 2 and .77 in Sample 3) and Profile 4 (financial-dominant; .72 in Sample 2 and .78 in Sample 3).

It appears that the relatively less stable profiles (based on the smallest transition probabilities on the diagonal) were Profile 1 (discontented; .47 in Sample 2 and .60 in Sample 3) and Profile 5 (financially insecure; .55 in Sample 2 and .54 in Sample 3). Some employees who were in Profile 1 in Time 1 moved to either Profile 4 (financial-dominant; .14 in Sample 2 and .29 in Sample 3) or Profile 5 (financially insecure; .27 in Sample 2 and .04 in Sample 3) in Time 2. On the other hand, some employees who were in Profile 5 in Time 1 moved to Profile 2 (contented; .25 in Sample 2 and .32 in Sample 3) in Time 2.

Covariates of Profile Transitions

Next, I included each of the Time 1 profile predictors and outcomes as covariates in the latent transition analyses, and analyzed the extent to which low, average, and high levels of each covariate influenced the transition probabilities. For the most part, low and high representative values were based on values at -1 SD and +1 SD respectively. For the highly skewed and zero-inflated variables, values at +2 SD or +3 SD were used as the representative values. It is important to note that the transition probabilities at different covariate levels should be interpreted in consideration of the probabilities with which employees were classified into a certain profile in Time 1. For example, if a very small percentage (e.g., 1%) of employees were classified into a specific profile in Time 1, the transition probabilities from that profile to another may be misleading because not many employees were in the former profile to begin with.

Physical Well-Being. Tables 81 and 82 present physical well-being factors as the profile transition covariates in Sample 2 and Sample 3. At different levels of physical health perceptions, profile membership was relatively stable from Time 1 to Time 2 (i.e., employees mostly stayed in the same profiles). The most noticeable changes were that, as physical health perceptions increased, the likelihood that employees transitioned from Profile 1 (discontented) to Profiles 2 (contented) and 3 (highly contented) increased, while the likelihood that employees moved from Profile 1 to Profile 4 (financial-dominant) decreased. Also, as physical health perceptions increased, the probabilities with which employees in Profile 4 (financial-dominant) in Time 1 moved to Profile 5 (financially insecure) and Profile 3 (highly contented) in Time 2 increased. Physical health perceptions also had some influence on where employees in Profile 5 (financially insecure) in Time 1 moved in Time 2. As physical health perceptions increased, Profile 5 employees were more likely to move to Profile 4 (financial-dominant).

The effects of disease burden on transition probabilities were not very consistent between Sample 2 and Sample 3. While greater disease burden increased the likelihood that employees would stay in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Sample 2, the probabilities decreased among Sample 3 employees. On the other hand, greater disease burden increased the likelihood that Sample 2 employees in Profile 4 (financial-dominant) in Time 1 would stay in the same profile in Time 2, but decreased the likelihood that Sample 3 employees in Profile 4 (financial-dominant) in Time 1 would stay in the same profile in Time 2.

For the most part, tobacco use did not have a major influence on transition probabilities. Interestingly, higher levels of tobacco use increased the probabilities that employees in the contented (Profile 2) and the highly contented (Profile 3) profiles would stay in the same profiles over time; but this effect was only witnessed in Sample 2; instead, an opposite effect was found in Sample 3.

Employees who reported greater exercise frequencies were more likely to stay in the same profiles in Time 2 if they were classified into the contented (Profile 2), the highly contented (Profile 3), and the financial-dominant (Profile 4) profiles in Time 1, especially among those in Sample 2. For those who belonged to the discontented (Profile 1), financially insecure (Profile 5) or lack of community well-being (Profile 6) profiles in Time 1, an increase of exercise frequency increased the likelihood that they would transition to either the contented profile (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile in Time 2.

Profile membership from Time 1 to Time 2 remained fairly stable at different levels of BMI. Particularly, both Sample 2 and Sample 3 employees in the contented (Profile 2) and the highly contented (Profile 3) in Time stayed in the same profiles even as BMI increased. Interestingly, in Sample 2, for those who belonged to Profile 1 (discontented) in Time 1, BMI increases lowered their probability of belonging to the same profile over time. At the same time, it appears that higher BMI increased the probability that these employees moved to Profile 5 (financially insecure) or Profile 2 (contented), and decreased the probability that they moved to Profile 3 (highly contented). However, the opposite effects were found in Sample 3, such that higher BMI increased the probability that employees in Profile 1 stayed in the same profile over time. Also, BMI decreased the probability that these employees moved to Profile 5 (financially insecure) or Profile 2 (contented). In both Sample 2 and Sample 3, a higher BMI decreased the probabilities that employees in Profile 5 (financially insecure) during Time 1 would move to the contented profile (Profile 2) in Time 2.

Work-Related Predictors. Tables 83 and 84 present the latent transition probabilities when two work-related factors were considered as covariates: (a) job satisfaction and (b) POS. Employees who were satisfied with their job were more likely to stay in the same profile in Time 2 if they belonged in the contented (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile in Time 1. Dissatisfied employees who were in the discontented profile (Profile 1) in Time 1 were likely to remain in the same profile; but as job satisfaction increased, there was a tendency for them to move from Profile 1 to Profile 4 (financial-dominant). For those who were in the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) in Time 1, an increase in job satisfaction was also related to an increase in the probabilities that they would move to the contented profile (Profile 2). And for those who were in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5), there was also a corresponding increase in the probabilities that they would move to the contented profile (Profile 2) in Time 2 when job satisfaction increased.

Employees who were in the contented (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile in Time 1 remained relatively stable in the same profiles over time across different levels of POS. That is, the probabilities with which they stayed in the contented or the highly contented remained high at low, average, and high levels of POS (see Tables 83 and 84). For those who were in the discontented profile (Profile 1) at Time 1, an increase in POS was related to an increase in the probabilities with which they transitioned to the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) in Time 2. Those who were in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 1 were more likely to move to either the contented (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile in Time 2 as their POS increased. Lastly, higher levels of POS were related to lower probabilities with which employees in Profile 6 (lack of community well-being) in Time 1 would move to Profile 1 (discontented) in Time 2.

Demographic Characteristics. Tables 85 and 86 present the latent transition probabilities in Sample 2 and Sample 3 when five different demographic characteristics were included as covariates in the latent transition analyses. Income influenced the transition probabilities in Sample 2 and Sample 3 in several ways. As income increased, Sample 2 employees were more likely to stay in the contented (Profile 2) and highly contented (Profile 3) profiles over time, and those who were in the financial-dominant (Profile 4) profile would more likely move to the contented profile (Profile 2).

However, the same effects were not replicated in Sample 3. As income increased, Sample 3 employees in the contented (Profile 2) and highly contented (Profile 3) profiles were less likely to stay in the same profiles – those in Profile 2 were more likely to move to Profile 3, and vice versa. As income increased among Sample 3 employees, those who were in the financial-dominant (Profile 4) in Time 1 were more likely to stay in the same profile in Time 2. Furthermore, in both samples, an increase in income decreased the probabilities with which employees in Profile 1 (discontented) and Profile 5 (financially insecure) in Time 1 stayed in the same profiles over time – some of them moved to the financial-dominant (Profile 4) as income increased.

Employees with higher levels of education were more likely to remain in their profiles if they were in the contented (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile in Time 1. For those who were in the discontented (Profile 1) profile in Time 1, there was a tendency for those who were more highly educated to move from Profile 1 to Profile 4 (financial-dominant) in Time 2. Additionally, those who were more highly educated were more likely to remain in the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) over time, whereas some of those who were less educated moved from Profile 6 in Time 1 to either Profile 1 (discontented) or Profile 2 (contented) in Time 2.

As for employment status, both part-time and full-time employees who were in the contented (Profile 2), highly contented (Profile 3), and the financial-dominant (Profile 4) profiles were highly likely to remain in the same profiles over time. However, for those who were in the discontented (Profile 1) profile in Time 1, there was an increase in the probability that full-time employees would move from Profile 1 to Profile 4 (financial-dominant). At the same time, there was a decrease in the probabilities with which full-time employees moved from Profile 1 to Profile 5 (financially insecure). In other words, part-time workers were more likely to move from Profile 1 (discontented) to Profile 5 (financially insecure) over time, and less likely to Profile 4 (financial-dominant).

Interestingly, employees who were older were less likely to stay in the discontented (Profile 1) over time than those who were younger because many older employees moved from Profile 1 in Time 1 to the financial-dominant (Profile 4) profile in Time 2. However, this effect was only observed in Sample 3. Among Sample 2 employees, older employees in Profile 1 (discontented) were more likely to remain in the same profile over time. The probabilities with which employees remained in Profiles 2 (contented), 3 (highly contented), and 4 (financial-dominant) were very high across all ages. That is, age did not appear to make a difference in their transition probabilities. Lastly, as employees' age increased, there was a stronger likelihood that they would stay in the same profile in Time 2 if they were in the financially insecure (Profile 5) or the lack of community well-being (Profile 6) profile in Time 1. Also, in both samples, older employees were less likely to move from Profile 5 (financially insecure) to Profile 2 (contented) over time.

The number of children employees had living at home did not seem to influence profile membership if employees were in the contented (Profile 2) or highly contented (Profile 3) profiles in Time 1 – they remained in the same profile regardless of the number of children they had living at home. For those who had more children living at home, employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) in Time 1 were more likely to move to the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 2, and less likely to move to the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) in Time 2. Additionally, employees who were in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 1 were more likely to move from Profile 5 to either Profile 2 (contented) or Profile 3 (highly contented) in Time 2 if they had more children living at home.

Work Productivity Variables. Tables 87 and 88 present the results for latent transition probabilities when work productivity variables were included as covariates in the latent transition analyses. A large majority of employees who were in the contented (Profile 2) or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile remained in the same profile over time at low, average, and high self-rated job performance.

Interestingly, whereas higher self-rated job performance was related to a greater likelihood that employees in the discontented profile (Profile 1) in Time 1 would move to the contented profile (Profile 2) in Time 2 among those in Sample

3, the effects were opposite among those in Sample 2. That is, Sample 2 employees who were in the discontented profile in Time 1 were more likely to stay in the same profile (and less likely to move to the contented profile) in Time 2 when their self-rated job performance was higher. When self-rated job performance increased, employees who were in the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) or the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 1 were more likely to move to the highly contented profile (Profile 3) in Time 2.

Overall, absenteeism did not appear to influence the extent to which employees in the contented (Profile 2), the highly contented (Profile 3), or the financial-dominant (Profile 4) profile in Time 1 moved to other profiles in Time 2. The probabilities with which they remained in the same profiles were very high across all levels of absenteeism. In Sample 2, employees who were in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 1 were less likely to move to the contented profile (Profile 2), and were more likely to stay in the same profile, in Time 2 as absenteeism increased. However, in Sample 3, employees in the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) in Time 1 were more likely to move to either the discontented (Profile 1) or the contented (Profile 2) profile as absenteeism increased.

As presenteeism increased, employees who were in the discontented profile (Profile 1) were less likely to remain in the same profile over time; they were more likely to move to the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4; Sample 2) or the financially insecure profile (Profile 5; Sample 3) in Time 2. Unexpectedly, an increase in presenteeism was related to an increase in the probability that employees in the contented profile (Profile 2) in Time 1 moved to the highly contented profile (Profile 3) in Time 2; some of these employees also moved to the financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) in Time 2 when presenteeism was higher. On the other hand, presenteeism did not affect those in the highly contented profile; many of those who were in the highly contented profile (Profile 3) in Time 1 remained in the same profile in Time 2. Lastly, employees who were in the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6) were more likely to move to either the discontented (Profile 1), contented (Profile 2), or the highly contented (Profile 3) profile when presenteeism increased.

Summary. Results of the latent transition analyses indicated that membership in psychosocial well-being profiles was largely stable over time (time interval: about 6 months to 1 year). Employees in Samples 2 and 3 were more likely to remain in the same profile over time than to transition to other profiles. Some of the covariates of profile transitions, including physical health perceptions, exercise frequency, job satisfaction, education, and self-rated job performance, were able to meaningfully explain the profile movements from Time 1 to Time 2.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

A Brief Study Overview

Employee well-being is receiving increasing attention from both researchers and practitioners because of its far-reaching implications for employees themselves and their organizations. The current study adopted a person-centered approach to assessing and understanding holistic well-being among employees. The person-centered approach is beginning to gain currency in the organizational sciences, especially in the area of organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2013; Meyer & Morin, 2016). This approach is advantageous because it explicitly identifies and compares qualitatively different subpopulations with different patterns of co-occurrence in a set of items. This relatively novel approach to examining well-being allows a deeper understanding of where employees belong in terms of well-being profiles (or groups), and the co-occurrences (or interactions) of multiple dimensions of well-being.

The primary objectives of the current study were to (a) identify clusters of employees who shared similar response patterns to multiple dimensions of psychosocial well-being, (b) examine physical well-being, work-related factors, and demographic characteristics as predictors of profile membership, (c) investigate differences in physical well-being and work productivity outcomes among the extracted well-being profiles, and (d) explore profile stability over time and covariates of transition probabilities. Findings resulting from these study objectives are expected to inform future organizational efforts in the design of workplace wellness promotion programs, so that employee well-being can be more easily and intuitively understood, and wellness programs can be tailored to the needs of different groups of employees.

To comprehensively represent a full range of well-being content that covers major aspects of life experience, I adopted the Gallup-Healthways Well-Being 5 model and utilized its survey instrument. Purpose, social, financial, community well-being were assessed to capture an inclusive picture of employees' holistic well-being and were utilized for profile analyses, and physical well-being indicators were examined as predictors and outcomes of psychosocial well-being profiles.

Given that well-being profile research is still in its infancy, the theoretical mechanisms for the co-occurrences of different dimensions of well-being, particularly those among employees, are unclear. The current study adopted a semi-inductive approach to generate theoretical understanding of how multidimensional well-being co-occurs among employees. I view this study as one of the first steps toward building a solid theory surrounding well-being profiles among employees. It is my hope that findings from the current study can encourage deductive/confirmatory tests in future studies and advance the process toward refining a conceptual model of employee well-being profiles.

Discussion of Findings

Exploratory Latent Profile Analyses

Overall, findings from the current study provided support for a person-centered approach to the study of employee holistic well-being. The present study used three separate samples of employees to test the hypotheses and research questions. The first sample (i.e., Sample 1) was a representative employee sample randomly selected from the U.S. population by Gallup and Healthways in 2014 and 2015. The overall sample size was 199,617. These employees represented both full-time and part-time workers, including self-employed workers. Following the semi-inductive approach, Sample 1 was used to conduct exploratory profile analyses using the four psychosocial Well-Being 5 constructs (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community). After a thorough evaluation of 2- through 8-profile solutions based on model fit indices and the meaningfulness of each profile, the 6-profile solution was determined to be the best-fitting solution that also had theoretically meaningful and non-redundant profiles.

As noted in Chapter 4, establishing both level and shape effects in profiles is important to maximize the utility of a person-centered approach. The final 6-profile solution in Sample 1 included profiles with both level and shape differences, thus further supporting the utility and value of a person-centered approach to understanding employee well-being (see Tables 12a and 12b). Figures 6a and 6b provide an illustration of the response patterns of each profile based on raw scores and z-scores respectively.

The first three profiles represented profiles with level differences. Profile 1 was *discontented* – employees in this group had consistently lower-than-average scores in purpose, social, financial, and community well-being. Profile 2 was *contented* – where employees had consistently moderate to high scores in the four well-being dimensions. Profile 3 was *highly contented* – where employees had consistently very high scores in the four well-being dimensions.

The last three profiles represented profiles with shape differences. Profile 4 was *financial-dominant*; employees in this profile had moderate to high scores on financial well-being, but they had lower scores on purpose, social, and community well-being. While these employees felt financially secure and had adequate financial resources to fulfill their needs, their experiences of meaningfulness or purpose, interpersonal relationships, and community involvement were not as strong as their perceptions of financial security.

Profile 5 was *financially insecure* – employees in this profile had lower scores on financial well-being, but they had moderate to high scores on purpose, social, and community well-being. Employees in this profile had essentially the opposite experiences to those in the financial-dominant profile. While they enjoyed what they did on a daily basis, had strong and supportive interpersonal networks, and felt safe and proud of their communities, they did not feel secure about their financial status.

Lastly, Profile 6 was *lack of community well-being* – where employees had lower scores on community well-being, and moderate to high scores on purpose, social, and financial well-being. In other words, these employees were driven to achieve their goals, had strong social support from family and friends, and had enough finances to support financial demands, they were not quite as involved in their communities and did not feel secure or pride in their communities.

The labels for these profiles with shape differences (i.e., Profiles 4, 5, and 6) were used to characterize the dominant well-being component with a higher score (i.e., financial-dominant profile), or the well-being component with a predominantly lower score than the rest of the profile indicators (i.e., financially insecure and lack of community well-being profiles). Even though these labels highlighted the components with either the highest or the lowest scores in each profile, it is important to also consider the scores of the other remaining well-being components when interpreting the meaning of each profile. For example, financial-dominant profile may carry a positive connotation while the financially insecure profile may carry a negative connotation. However, as I will discuss below, in some cases, financial-dominant was a more unfavorable profile than the financially insecure profile – probably because employees in the financial-dominant profile also had lower scores on purpose, social, and community well-being, while those in the financially insecure profile had higher scores on purpose, social, and community well-being. In this instance, purpose, social, and community well-being components may be more influential (or salient) than the financial well-being component.

The final 6-profile solution supported the importance of a semi-inductive approach adopted in the current study. That is, while some of the hypothesized profiles were supported, I also found – based on exploratory profile analyses – other naturally occurring subgroups that were not hypothesized. The discontented (Profile 1), contented (Profile 2), and highly contented (Profile 3) profiles aligned with the results from previous studies which also consistently found profiles with level differences (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Chen, 2012; Wood & Joseph, 2010). Similarly, I also found ordered profile groups with low, high and very high scores on all well-being profile indicators, indicated by the increases in the mean values on all indicators. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. These ordered profiles suggested that there is meaningful heterogeneity with regard to the co-occurrence of multidimensional well-being. These level profiles also suggest that it is possible for employees to experience similar levels of multiple (related but distinct) forms of psychosocial well-being, and that psychosocial well-being may be a systematic or all-encompassing experience reflecting either a bottom-up (i.e., different aspects of life experience affecting overall psychosocial well-being) or a top-down (i.e., overall psychosocial well-being affecting experiences in specific life domains) effect.

Unlike some previous well-being profile studies which found only level differences among their profiles, the current study also found shape differences based on exploratory analyses. This is likely because some of the prior studies used profile indicators with high levels of overlap in both conceptual and statistical terms. For example, Bhullar and colleagues (2014) used Ryff's six PWB dimensions which were highly correlated and involved more overlapping content. The current study, however, used a more diverse set of constructs representing holistic well-being. In other words, the Well-Being 5 constructs covered a wider and fuller range of life experiences (i.e., purpose, social, financial, and community domains) and they were not as highly correlated. Also, the psychosocial Well-Being 5 constructs captured not only eudaimonic forms of well-being (like Ryff's PWB dimensions), but also hedonic forms of well-being (e.g., affective evaluations). This further supports the importance of taking a holistic approach to profiling employees in order to more effectively capture co-occurrences with both level and shape differences.

Among the hypothesized profiles with shape differences, the financial-dominant profile, which was conceptualized based on the dominance approach commonly used in the organizational commitment literature, was also supported. Specifically, I found a distinct financial-dominant profile (Profile 4) which had a particularly higher score on financial well-being than the other well-being components.

Although other hypothesized dominant profiles were not supported, I found two other subgroups with particularly lower scores on one well-being component in each profile: the financially insecure profile (Profile 5) and the lack of community well-being profile (Profile 6). These profiles do not necessarily discount the validity of the dominance approach. Perhaps instead of focusing solely on the constructs with higher scores, placing some of the emphasis on components with relatively lower scores may be equally, if not more, meaningful in understanding how they "dominate" a person's perceptions about their overall well-being.

In fact, this interpretation aligns with the "bad is stronger than good" concept developed by Baumeister and his colleages (2001). That is, negative events are typically more powerful in influencing our event appraisals or behavioral reactions than positive events partly because, throughout our evolutionary history, humans are often more attuned to bad things (Baumeister et al., 2001). The relative strength of negative events may outweigh positive ones in that individuals tend to place greater emphasis on negative events and negative events tend to result in stronger (negative) reactions (e.g., Boyce, Wood, Banks, Clark, & Brown, 2013). It would certainly be interesting to find out if similar patterns would occur in samples beyond those in the current study. Additional confirmatory tests will help establish a better understanding of whether the approach of identifying components with relatively higher and lower scores among a set of well-being indicators would accurately characterize different well-being profiles with shape differences. Future studies may also consider testing individual and/or environmental factors that may lead a person to experience a particular combination (level or shape) of multidimensional well-being.

The prevalence of each well-being profile should also be considered. In Sample 1, the highly contented profile had the largest amount of employees

(45%), followed by the contented profile (30%). This is probably not surprising given the mean levels of each well-being construct were very close to 4 on a 5-point scale. The third largest profile was the financial-dominant profile (8%), followed by the financially insecure profile (7%), the lack of community well-being profile (6%), and the discontented profile (4%). Since the average values of each psychosocial well-being variable were quite high (close to 4 on a 5-point scale), it is not surprising to see a small percentage of employees classified into the discontented group (low scores on all profile indicators). This may mean that U.S. (full-time or part-time) employees were generally experiencing positive psychosocial well-being, and that a separate study sampling unemployed individuals or active job-seekers may yield different findings in terms of the prevalence of each well-being profile.

Because Sample 1 had a fairly large sample size, a small percentage still represented a significant amount of employees (e.g., 4% = about 8,705 employees). Therefore, in this case, the profiles with smaller percentages were not discounted solely based on the small percentages. In other profile solutions (i.e., 7- and 8-profile models), some profiles with smaller profile percentages were discounted because they did not add unique meaning to the profile structure. For example, some of the smaller profiles had the same response patterns as other profiles, and they differed simply in the intercept values, thus they did not represent meaningful or unique profiles beyond other larger profiles. The different profile sizes and proportions highlight that a fairly large sample size was necessary to detect some of the smaller profiles – such as the discontented profile and the three shape profiles. Confirmatory tests in future studies may need to take that into consideration. For example, a failure to replicate the smaller well-being profiles may be attributable to sample sizes being too small. Studies with smaller sample sizes may conclude that these smaller profiles are not meaningful; however, based on the current findings, there were meaningful differences between those profiles in terms of their antecedents and outcomes. Therefore, the importance of these smaller profiles should not be dismissed.

As noted, Sample 1 is a representative and large sample of employees randomly selected from the U.S. population. Therefore, the 6-profile solution obtained from Sample 1 should also theoretically be representative of the naturally occurring groups in the population of U.S. employees. And as I discuss below, the 6-profile solution was successfully cross-validated in two other employee samples across two time points. In other words, generalizability concerns should be minimized. Obviously, additional confirmatory and deductive tests are needed to continue refining the theoretical framework for well-being profiles, but I view these profile findings as strong preliminary evidence and as a step toward building a solid theory of well-being profiles. One thing to note, though, is that Sample 1 contained largely employees working full-time and a smaller amount of part-time workers – which might partially explain the very high average scores of Well-Being 5 constructs. The full-time versus part-time distribution was more uneven in Samples 2 and 3 – more than 90% were full-time employed. Future studies may obtain different profile structures if they focused only on part-time workers or underemployed workers, or if they included unemployed individuals who were actively seeking for jobs. The mean levels of the Well-Being 5 constructs would probably be less high, and less ceiling effects (due to range restrictions) may occur.

Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses

To address concerns related to the replicability or generalizability of Sample 1 findings, I used two additional employee samples to cross-validate the 6-profile solution by conducting a series of confirmatory analyses. Sample 2 represented approximately 3,500 employees in a healthcare company. Sample 3 represented approximately 1,700 employees in a trucking company. As noted earlier, these employees were primarily full-time employed. Similar to those in Sample 1, the mean values for the Well-Being 5 constructs in Samples 2 and 3 were very close to 4 on a 5-point scale (in some cases, they were slightly over 4). These values indicate that employees were, on average, experiencing positive well-being in most major aspects of life experiences. But, as the profile analyses showed, there were groups/clusters of employees who did not have high scores on every well-being indicator (i.e., shape profiles). These profiles provide further support for a person-centered approach. If a variable-centered approach was adopted, researchers may simply use these average estimates and conclude that all employees were satisfied with their lives and had high holistic well-being. Instead, the current study decomposed the variances/relationships differently and explicitly tested the existence of groups which differed meaningfully on the configurations of different well-being constructs.

In Samples 2 and 3, the correlations among Well-Being 5 constructs were slightly stronger than those in Sample 1 (ranged from .39 to .57). They ranged from .44 to .66 in Sample 2, and from .49 to .72 in Sample 3. Similar to the case in Sample 1, overall, these correlations were not as strong as the ones in previous well-being profiling studies which found only level differences between profiles (e.g., PWB indices were correlated at up to .83 in Bhullar et al. [2014]) – which may have been one of the reasons the current study also found both level and shape differences among employees in Sample 2 and Sample 3.

Overall, the confirmatory tests were successful in cross-validating the 6-profile solution obtained in Sample 1. Based on four sets of confirmatory models conducted using Time 1 and Time 2 responses collected from Sample 2 and Sample 3 employees, I was able to find support for the 6-profile solution. In other words, upon fixing most of the intercepts at Sample 1 values and freeing some of the intercepts that were harming model fit, I was able to find the most parsimonious solutions as well as retain the same meaning of the six distinct well-being profiles.

The results also indicated that freeing more intercepts beyond those in the final confirmatory models listed in Tables 13, 17, 21, and 25 did not provide significant improvement to model fit. In fact, the improvement to model fit became very trivial, and thus parsimony (i.e., freely estimating less parameters) was favored. Qualitative comparisons between the Sample 1 intercept values and the freely estimated intercepts revealed that freeing the intercepts did not change the interpretation of respective well-being profiles; the 6-profile structure was intact.

The final confirmatory models selected for subsequent analyses had comparable profile proportions to those in Sample 1 – further supporting the validity of the 6-profile structure obtained in Sample 1. The two profiles with the largest number/proportions of employees were the highly contented profile (ranging from 37% to 44%), and the contented profile (ranging from 35% to 41%). In most cases (i.e., Sample 2 Time 1, Sample 3 Time 1 and Time 2), the highly contented profile had slightly larger percentages than the contented profile. The prevalence of these two profiles is probably not unexpected given the very high average scores on the Well-Being 5 constructs in Sample 2 and Sample 3. The next largest group was the financial-dominant profile (ranging from 7% to 14%), followed by the financially insecure profile (ranging from 6% to 9%), the discontented profile (ranging from 3% to 7%), and the lack of community well-being profile (ranging from 1% to 3%).

The order of profile prevalence between Samples 2 and 3 was the same, and it was slightly different from the order found in Sample 1. That is, whereas the discontented profile had the smallest proportion in Sample 1, the lack of community well-being profile had the smallest proportion in Samples 2 and 3. That being said, the highly contented profile was the most prevalent in all three samples (i.e., Sample 1, Sample 2, and Sample 3), followed by the contented profile, the financial-dominant profile, and the financially insecure profile.

Even though Sample 2 and Sample 3 had smaller sample sizes and they represented employees from two companies, cross-validation tests of the 6-profile solution obtained from a large representative sample (i.e., Sample 1) were successful. Given the satisfactory model fit and theoretical conformity of the confirmatory 6-profile models in Samples 2 and 3, and that they had very similar profile proportions to those in Sample 1, the current study was able to provide additional evidence supporting the validity of the 6-profile solution. These evidence also further addressed generalizability concerns (e.g., sample-specific profile solutions) raised by some person-centered researchers (e.g., Wang et al., 2013).

Even though exploratory models in Sample 2 and Sample 3, where all intercepts were freely estimated, did not provide significant improvement in model fit (based on the small changes in -2 Log-Likelihood per freed intercept), their profile structures were still informative. Out of 4 exploratory models (i.e., Sample 2 Time 1, Sample 2 Time 2, Sample 3 Time 1, and Sample 3 Time 2), two of them fully replicated the 6-profile solution – they are the models from Sample 2 Time 2 and Sample 3 Time 1. That is, when all 24 intercepts were freely estimated, these two models found the same profile structure. Even though the mean values were not identical, the qualitative interpretation/meaning of the 6 distinct well-being profiles was the same. In the other two models, the 6-profile solution was mostly replicated. In the Sample 2 Time 1 exploratory model, all profiles were replicated except the lack of community well-being profile. This is potentially related to the fact that the lack of community well-being profile occupied the smallest proportion in the confirmatory models. Larger sample sizes may increase the chances of replicating this profile.

In the Sample 3 Time 2 exploratory model, the level profiles were replicated and the shape profiles were semi-replicated. The shape profiles were semi-replicated because, while the shapes (i.e., profile patterns) were similar to those in Sample 1, the intercept values representing those shapes were fairly different, and the patterns were not as distinct as those in Sample 1. Specifically, in Sample 1, Profile 4 (financial-dominant) had lower-than-average scores on purpose, social, and community well-being, and a moderate to high score on financial well-being. In Sample 3 Time 2's exploratory model, even though Profile 4 also had the highest score on financial well-being, its difference from other indicators was not as dramatic as it was in Sample 1. That is, the mean score on financial well-being was not particularly high, and the mean scores on the other three well-being variables were not particularly low. Similar instances were found in Profile 5 (financially insecure) and Profile 6 (lack of community well-being). Even though, in Sample 3 Time 2, Profiles 5 and 6 had the lowest scores on financial and community well-being respectively, their differences from other well-being indicators were not as marked as they were in Sample 1.

The inductive approach taken to analyze the profiles in Sample 1 provided a foundation for understanding well-being configurations. Both the confirmatory and exploratory analyses conducted in Sample 2 and Sample 3 provided additional support for the 6-profile solution obtained in Sample 1. Even though Sample 2 and Sample 3 had smaller sample sizes, the profile solution was still replicated and confirmed, thus supporting the argument that the 6-profile solution represented subgroups among employees with meaningfully different configurations and co-occurrences of multidimensional well-being – at least among full-time employees. Of course, more confirmatory tests are needed by sampling employees from different organizations, occupations, job levels, and work characteristics (e.g., work schedules, employment arrangements, and job design). These tests will be instrumental in forming a reliable framework accounting for the well-being configurations, and the contexts in which some profiles may be more prevalent than others.

Antecedents of Well-Being Profiles

Well-being profile antecedents had not been widely examined in previous well-being profile studies. In fact, most of them focused primarily on the outcomes of well-being profiles (e.g., Bhullar et al., 2014; Busseri et al., 2009; Wood & Joseph, 2010). The current study represented one of the first attempts in examining physical well-being, work-related factors, and demographic characteristics as predictors of well-being profiles. These findings provide information related to the development of well-being profiles and potentially identify modifiable characteristics organizations can use as leverage points to improve well-being among employees. Additionally, findings related to profile antecedents and outcomes can be evaluated concurrently. For example, one may focus on the profile with the most favorable (or unfavorable) outcomes and identify the antecedents that positively (or negatively) predicted that profile in order to evaluate which antecedents can be modified to increase (or decrease) the likelihood that employees would fall into that profile.

Among the five physical well-being predictors: physical health perceptions, disease burden, tobacco use, exercise frequency, and body mass index (BMI), physical health perceptions explained the most significant differences in well-being profile membership. That is, physical health perceptions best differentiated employee membership in the 6 profiles. One of the possible reasons is because physical health perceptions had similar item characteristics as the psychosocial Well-Being 5 items, and that measures of perceptions tend to be more correlated with other measures of perceptions than objective measures (Eatough & Spector, 2013; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Perhaps objective measures like tobacco use and BMI were more distal antecedents of psychosocial well-being, which may explain the lack of profile differentiation, whereas physical health perceptions were conceptually more proximal to psychosocial well-being. Also, because tobacco use was a zero-inflated variable, its lack of variance may have attributed to many insignificant differentiation between well-being profiles.

Among the six profiles, physical health perceptions were most positively related to the highly contented profile, and most negatively related to the discontented profile. That is, employees with better physical health perceptions also tend to experience greater psychosocial well-being, including better purpose, social, financial, and community well-being. This is possibly because employees who experienced less physical limitations or impairments were better able to pursue meaningful goals, connect with family and friends, maintain financial security, and get involved in their communities.

Among the shape profiles, overall, employees with greater physical health perceptions were more likely to belong to the lack of community well-being profile, followed by the financially-insecure profile, and the financial-dominant profile. In other words, having better physical health perceptions was more strongly related to higher purpose and social well-being. They were less often related to higher financial or community well-being (corresponding to the lack of community well-being and financially insecure profiles respectively). Those with better physical health perceptions were less likely to be in the financial-dominant profile because they were less likely to experience low purpose and social well-being. In fact, these results correspond with the positive relationships found between physical health perceptions and the psychosocial Well-Being 5 constructs.

Disease burden and exercise frequency (i.e., one of the indicators of healthy behaviors) were the next best predictors of profile membership. In most cases, disease burden (exercise frequency) was most negatively (positively) related to the highly contented profile, and most positively (negatively) related to the discontented profile. That is, employees with more health conditions and lower exercise frequency were less likely to be classified into the highly contented group. This may be attributable to the spillover effects physical health has on psychological health. Health conditions and a lack of physical activity may impair employees' interest and/or ability to pursue their life/work goals, spend time with family, friends or coworkers, maintain financial wellness (e.g., debts and high healthcare expenses), and contribute to their communities. However, these two variables were not able to significantly differentiate membership among the three shape profiles, other than a few instances where greater exercise frequency and disease burden were more strongly related to the financially insecure profile than the financial-dominant profile. This may have been partially due to smaller sample sizes in the shape profiles. Larger sample sizes in the shape profiles may increase the statistical power needed to differentiate profile membership. Taken together, Hypothesis 2a was mostly supported, and Hypothesis 2b was not.

In cross-sectional regressions, both job satisfaction and perceived organizational support (POS) had comparable predictive strength in differentiating profile membership; whereas in longitudinal regression, job satisfaction at Time 1 was a better predictor of profile membership at Time 2. This may imply that job satisfaction has a more lasting (or stable) effect on employee psychosocial well-being, whereas POS may represent more fluid perceptions, which depend on the day-to-day experiences employees have at work. Among the six profiles, in most cases, job satisfaction and POS were most positively related to the highly contented profile, and most negatively related to the discontented profile. In other words, these results further support the existing literature that employees who were satisfied with their job and those who perceived greater support (e.g., instrumental or emotional support) from their organization were more likely to experience better psychosocial well-being.

In a few cases, job satisfaction and POS were more negatively related to the financial-dominant profile than to the discontented profile. Perhaps this means that job satisfaction and POS had stronger effects on purpose, social, and community well-being than on financial well-being. That is, when employees experienced low job satisfaction and low POS, they were more strongly related to lower purpose, social, and community well-being. Work-related factors may have more direct bearing and stronger implications for employees' purpose, social, and community well-being, and less so for their financial well-being – probably because job satisfaction and POS more likely affect employees' motivation to reach certain goals at work, interpersonal relationships with coworkers, and ability to contribute to their communities (e.g., more flexible work schedules), but less likely affect employees' financial experiences (e.g., debt, ability to meet financial demands). Perhaps specific compensation-related factors in the workplace (e.g., pay satisfaction, financial management support/programs) would more strongly relate to employees' financial well-being.

Interestingly, with a few exceptions, job satisfaction and POS did not significantly distinguish membership among the three shape profiles. The few exceptions were the differentiation between the financially insecure profile and the financial-dominant profile; employees with higher job satisfaction and higher POS were more likely to be in the former than the latter profile. This is another example illustrating a situation where higher job satisfaction and higher POS were more strongly (positively) related to higher purpose, social, and community well-being than to financial well-being. Altogether, these findings supported Hypotheses 3a and 4a, but did not support Hypotheses 3b and 4b.

Among the five demographic characteristics: monthly household income, highest level of education, employment status (full-time versus part-time), age, and number of children living at home, monthly household income was the overall strongest antecedent of well-being profile membership. That is, monthly household income best differentiated membership in the 6 well-being profiles. This also means that, among these 5 demographic factors, income had the strongest influence on where employees belonged in terms of their multidimensional well-being configurations.

Higher monthly household income was most positively related to the highly contented profile, and most negatively related to both the discontented profile and the financially insecure profile. There were no significant predictive differences of income between the discontented and the financially insecure profile. This means that employees with lower income tend to experience low levels of purpose, social, financial, and community well-being; even if they experienced high levels of purpose, social, and community well-being, they still reported low financial well-being. This is perhaps not surprising because income tend to have a more direct influence on employees' finances than on non-financial aspects of life like social well-being. In other words, having more money would more likely allow employees to maintain financial security, but not necessarily enhance the interpersonal bonds with others.

Among the shape profiles, monthly household income was only able to differentiate the profile membership between the financial-dominant and the financially insecure profile, and the differences were rather small. As income increased, employees were less likely to belong to the financially insecure profile, and more likely to the financial-dominant profile. This, once again, shows the extent to which income had a stronger influence on the changes in financial well-being than any other well-being indicators.

Education was a better predictor of profile membership in Sample 2 than in Sample 3, perhaps this means education was a more salient factor to employees' life evaluation and happiness among those in Sample 2 than in Sample 3. In particular, among Sample 2 employees, education was most positively related to the highly contented profile, and the most negatively related to the discontented and the financially insecure profiles. There were no significant predictive differences of education between the discontented and the financially insecure profile. This means that, similar to monthly household income, lower level of education had an adverse influence on primarily one's financial well-being. Less educated employees may experience high purpose, social, and community well-being, but they were still likely to experience low financial well-being. Consistent with the existing socioeconomic status literature, employees with less education probably made less money, and thus experienced diminished financial well-being.

Among the three shape profiles in Sample 2, education was only able to differentiate membership between the financial-dominant and the financially insecure profiles. Employees with higher levels of education were more likely to belong to the financial-dominant profile than the financially insecure profile. Even though the magnitude of the differences was smaller, this is yet another example illustrating the effects of education on financial well-being. Employees who were more highly educated most likely earned more money, hence they felt more secure about their financial status.

The other three demographic factors: employment status, age, and number of children living at home were not consistent predictors of profile membership. Employment status was, overall, not a significant predictor of profile membership. Although a few significant differences were found in Sample 2 Time 1, these effects were not replicated in Time 2 or Sample 3. This suggests that well-being profiles may not depend on employment status. The full-time and part-time distinction in this study may have failed to capture meaningful variances in employment status. For example, part-time workers may work part-time voluntarily and may not necessarily experience worse well-being than those who work full-time. A finer-grained measure including intentions to work part-time would be beneficial to capture greater variances and differences in employment status. Moreover, employees in Sample 2 and Sample 3 were largely full-time employed (more than 90%), thus creating highly skewed and uneven distributions. This further supports the importance of extending beyond a dichotomous measure to include more fine-grained employment categories.

The effects of age on profile membership were also inconsistent across the cross-sectional and longitudinal regressions in both Sample 2 and Sample 3. While older employees were in some cases more likely to belong to the contented or highly contented profile and less likely to the discontented profile, these differences were not consistently found in other models. Interestingly, I found a few significant differences in which age distinguished employees in the financially insecure profile from the contented and the highly contented profiles. That is, older employees appeared to less likely belong to the financially insecure profile, and more likely to belong to the contented and the highly contented profiles. This is probably because older employees tend to have more work experiences, hence their earnings tend to be higher than those who were younger. However, this explanation does not apply to a few cases where older employees were less likely to belong to the financial-dominant profile. It appears from the current study that competing relationships were found between age and psychosocial well-being. As the existing literature also suggests, the relationship between age and psychosocial well-being profiles is quite complex and may be non-linear. Moderators, such as physical health, may influence that relationship – some older employees may experience more physical health problems and thus they may more likely experience financial strain or economic insecurity.

The number of children living at home predicted the most pronounced differences between the discontented profile and the highly contented profile. Employees with more children living at home were more likely to belong to the discontented profile; whereas those with less children living at home were more likely to belong to the highly contented profile. This finding appears to align with the work-family conflict literature, which suggests that having more children living at home or having more dependent children can cause great interference with work and thus negatively impact one's psychological well-being.

Having more children may also mean less time for personal goal achievement, greater financial burden, less time and energy for social interactions, and less time to be involved in the community. Interestingly, there were also a few instances where employees were more likely to belong to the financially insecure profile than the contented or highly contented profile. This supports my prior argument that having more children can be financially taxing. Even though having more children can be psychologically enriching in that they increased employees' purpose, social, and community well-being, their financial well-being still suffered.

Outcomes of Well-Being Profiles

The examination of well-being profile outcomes in the current study enabled a deeper understanding of the extent to which well-being profiles were meaningfully associated with (a) physical well-being and (b) work productivity. These findings increase the value and utility of well-being profiles because they allow researchers and practitioners to identify groups which are more favorable and unfavorable (i.e., the best and the worst groups). Interventions can therefore be tailored to the needs of employees in groups which are at greater risks for poor physical well-being or work productivity problems. These findings can also be evaluated concurrently with the results regarding profile antecedents. For example, the antecedent that reliably predicts membership in the most favorable profile may serve as a leverage point for workplace well-being interventions.

Not surprisingly, in most cases, the "best" profile was the highly contented profile and the "worst" profile was the discontented profile. This is likely because the psychosocial Well-Being 5 constructs were positively related to more positive outcomes (including physical health perceptions, exercise frequency, job satisfaction, POS, self-rated job performance), whereas they were negatively related to negative outcomes (including disease burden, tobacco use, BMI, absenteeism, and presenteeism). Therefore, employees in the highly contented profile – where psychosocial Well-Being 5 scores were consistently very high –

tend to experience more positive outcomes; those in the discontented profile – where psychosocial Well-Being 5 scores were consistently low – tend to experience more negative outcomes.

Perhaps the more interesting interpretation of the outcome findings would be identifying profiles with comparable outcomes to those in the highly contented profile or the discontented profile. Consistent with the idea of equifinality, profiles with outcomes that were not significantly different from those in the highly contented profile can be considered as equally favorable. At the same time, profiles with outcomes that that were not significantly different from those in the discontented profile can be considered as equally unfavorable. This is also a practical way to interpret the findings because, in the ideal world, organizations may wish to improve every dimension of well-being, but they typically have limited resources at their disposal. Therefore, the understanding of the equifinal nature of well-being profiles can help organizations pinpoint essential areas of improvement which are also worthy of investment. For example, as I also discuss below, employees in the contented and financially insecure profiles tend to experience comparable physical well-being outcomes. This means that purpose, social, and community well-being are relatively more crucial than financial well-being in influencing physical well-being. A workplace-sponsored program which focuses on improving employees' purpose, social, and community well-being would probably cost less resources than a program targeting at all four aspects of psychosocial well-being, yet current findings suggest that both programs would likely achieve similar results.

While employees in the highly contented profile had the most favorable physical health perceptions, there were trivial differences in physical health perceptions among employees in the contented, financially insecure, and lack of community well-being profiles. This may be an indication that high purpose well-being and high social well-being were more important leading indicators of physical health than financial or community well-being. In other words, even if employees had low financial well-being or low community well-being, it was still possible for employees to have favorable physical health perceptions. This point is further supported by the fact employees in the financial-dominant profile had the second worst physical health perceptions. That is, even if they had high financial well-being, it was not sufficient to increase physical health perceptions unless they also had high purpose and social well-being. Practically speaking, this could mean to practitioners that purpose and social well-being should be the focus of intervention-related work if they seek to increase the likelihood that employees experience better physical health perceptions.

Disease burden primarily distinguished between profiles with level differences. The results suggest that employees in the three shape profiles had largely the same disease burden. There were a few exceptions, though, where employees in the contented and the lack of community well-being profile had comparable disease burden. This suggests that community well-being may be a less important leading indicator of disease burden. Purpose, social, and financial well-being were more important factors leading to less disease burden. The lack of differences among the three shape profiles was probably attributable to small sample sizes in the shape profiles, thus causing non-significant pairwise differences. Also, disease burden was a zero-inflated variable – the occurrences of disease burden were limited and the statistical power to detect significant differences may have been limited as well. These results could also mean that the shape profiles simply did not differentially predict disease burden. There may be compensatory effects between the financial-dominant profile and the financially insecure profile, such that having relatively higher financial well-being (i.e., financial-dominant profile) was sufficient to sustain the same amount of disease burden as those with relatively higher purpose, social, and community well-being (i.e., financially insecure profile).

The relationship between well-being profiles and tobacco use was not consistent, particularly when considering both cross-sectional and longitudinal models. Cross-sectionally, employees in the highly contented, contented, and the lack of community well-being profiles had comparable levels of tobacco use. This may be an indication that purpose, social, and financial well-being were the three most important factors predicting tobacco use behaviors. However, there were instances where the discontented and the lack of community well-being profiles had non-significant difference in tobacco use. This is likely due to smaller sample sizes in the lack of community well-being profile, thus there was insufficient statistical power to detect the differences. Also, similar to disease burden, tobacco use was a zero-inflated variable and thus there was a limited amount of variance.

Similar to the case of physical health perceptions, while employees in the highly contented profile had consistently the highest exercise frequency, there were trivial differences in exercise frequency among employees in the contented, financially insecure, and the lack of community well-being profiles. This may be another indication that employees were more motivated and/or available to exercise more frequently when they had high purpose well-being and high social well-being. Even if they had low financial well-being (i.e., financially insecure profile) or had low community well-being (i.e., lack of community well-being), employees still engaged in more frequent exercising behaviors as long as they had high purpose and high social well-being. In fact, in many cases, employees in the financial-dominant profile had the second worst exercise frequency. This further supports the notion that having low purpose and low social well-being would likely deter exercise behaviors. These findings could mean that allowing employees to fulfill their goals, increasing meaningfulness of their work, and encouraging more social/interpersonal connections would encourage healthier behaviors (e.g., exercising).

Overall, well-being profiles did not reliably predict BMI because the predictions were either inconsistent or non-significant within a sample. Well-being profiles did not predict BMI differences among a number of profiles in Sample 3.

That is, employees in the six profiles had largely comparable BMI values. For example, while BMI values between the discontented profile and the lack of community well-being profile were not significantly different, the values between the highly contented profile and the lack of community well-being profile were not significantly different either.

Also, there were inconsistent results in Sample 2. While, in some cases, employees in the lack of community well-being profile had similar BMI values to those in the discontented profile; in other cases, they were similar to those in the contented profile. One of the reasons for insignificant results could be that BMI is a distant outcome of psychosocial well-being that may be mediated by more proximal constructs, such as healthy behaviors or other psychological variables (e.g., physical health perceptions). Moderators may also account for these inconsistent main effects, including dietary habits and exercise frequency. Taken together, Hypothesis 5a was partially supported, and Hypothesis 5b was not supported.

Among the three work productivity outcomes, self-rated job performance was found to be the most significant outcome of well-being profiles. Employees in the highly contented profile had consistently the highest self-rated job performance. Employees in both the discontented and the financial-dominant profiles had consistently the lowest self-rated job performance. This may be an indication of how important purpose, social, and community well-being were to employees' job performance.

Even if they had relatively higher financial well-being, it was not sufficient to increase their job performance. Perceptions of meaningfulness and purpose, being driven to achieve goals, having supportive social and interpersonal networks, and being involved in the community were shown to be instrumental to job performance; whereas having more money did not necessarily motivate employees to perform well at work. This argument is further supported by the fact that employees in the contented and the financially insecure profiles had comparable self-rated job performance. In other words, even though some employees did not feel secure about their financial situation, their relatively higher levels of purpose, social, and community well-being were more important leading indicators of their performance at work. Possibly due to smaller sample sizes, the lack of community well-being profile was not very well distinguished from the discontented, contented, or the highly contented profile.

Absenteeism was not a significant outcome of well-being profiles partially because of the zero-inflated distribution and the smaller sample sizes in some profiles, and also because the pairwise comparisons were not consistent across different models at different time points and across Sample 2 and Sample 3. In Sample 3, well-being profiles were only able to differentiate rates of absenteeism between some of the level profiles. In Sample 2, most profiles, including the contented, highly contented, financial-dominant, and lack of community well-being had largely similar rates of absenteeism. The psychosocial well-being profiles did not predict rates of absenteeism probably because absenteeism typically arises from more severe health problems which cause limitations to employees' ability to go to work. Also, psychosocial well-being profiles may be distal antecedents of absenteeism. Work-related factors may be more proximal to work-related absenteeism and may mediate the relationship between psychosocial well-being profiles and absenteeism. For example, more negative psychosocial well-being may diminish employees' work engagement, which may in turn lead to more work-related absenteeism (e.g., Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009).

Similarly, presenteeism was not a significant outcome of well-being profiles. To put it another way, employee well-being profiles did not predict significant differences in their presenteeism at work. Even though employees in the highly contented profile and the contented profile had, in most cases, the lowest absolute presenteeism scores, these scores were not statistically different from those in the discontented profile. Moreover, the differences between the shape profiles were also trivial, which was possibly due to smaller sample sizes in the shape profiles. These results may also be an indication that psychosocial well-being is not the preceding factor contributing to or explaining presenteeism, instead, it may be a lagging indicator of presenteeism. Taken together, Hypothesis 6a was partially supported, and Hypothesis 6b was not supported.

Also, presenteeism may be more attributable to external factors that are beyond employees' control. For example, psychosocial well-being may not be able to explain employees' presenteeism if their productivity loss was due to technology issues at work or lack of resources (i.e., two of the presenteeism indicators in the current study). Perhaps the presenteeism scale can be split into two sub-scales representing internal and external factors contributing to presenteeism. Internal factors may be personal problems or worries, depression or anxiety, and/or financial stress/concerns. External factors may include technology issues, lack of sufficient training, and/or issues with coworkers. In this case, it may be more suitable to test the internal factors as outcomes of well-being profiles, and examine the external factors as antecedents of well-being profiles.

Stability of Well-Being Profiles

The correlations of Well-Being 5 variables between Time 1 and Time 2 were fairly strong (ranging from .60 to .70). These bivariate correlations provided preliminary support that psychosocial well-being among these employees tend to be quite consistent from Time 1 to Time 2. These correlations also provided some evidence of test-retest reliability. However, these bivariate correlations do not provide information about the stability of response patterns over time. Mixture modeling can overcome this limitation because one of the advantages of mixture modeling is the ability to evaluate ipsative stability, or the extent of continuity of the configurations of multidimensional well-being over time (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Mäkikangas et al., 2016), based on latent transition analyses.

The transition probabilities based on Time 1 and Time 2 responses gathered from Sample 2 and Sample 3 employees revealed that well-being profiles were largely stable over time – in this case, over about 6 months to 1 year. For all six profiles, the probabilities with which employees would stay in the same profiles were larger than those indicating profile movements (see diagonal values in Tables 77 and 79).

The two most stable profiles were the highly contented and the contented profiles – which was partially due to larger sample sizes in these profiles. That is, the same number of individuals moving to a different profile from a smaller versus a larger profile would result in larger percentages/transition probabilities in the former than in the latter. For example, 5 persons transitioning to a different profile from a smaller profile (20 people) would yield a 25% transition probability or 75% stability rate; whereas 5 persons transitioning to a different profile from a larger profile (200 people) would yield a 2.5% transition probability or 97.5% stability rate. Relatively speaking, the two least stable profiles were the discontented and the financially insecure profiles. Similarly, this was partially due to the fact that the sample sizes for these two profiles were relatively smaller. For example, 16% represented 124 employees in the highly contented profile, while 14% reflected 11 employees in the discontented profile. Therefore, the percentages may seem inflated in smaller samples and they can be somewhat misleading; they should therefore be interpreted carefully in consideration of the sample sizes presented in Tables 78 and 80.

Overall, the current study found evidence supporting the stability of well-being profiles over time. The length of time lag between Time 1 and Time 2 (i.e., ranged from 6 months to 1 year) may have been one of the reasons profile stability was rather high. Perhaps a longer timespan between two time points would have affected the stability of these profiles and produced more intra-individual changes over time (Mäkikangas et al., 2016). For example, Mäkikangas, Hyvönen, Leskinen, Kinnunen, and Feldt (2011) found meaningful change trajectories of job-related affective well-being over 10 years. Lower stability may also imply that there is a greater potential for change through work-related interventions.

These stability findings may also be organization-specific or sample-specific and thus replication studies are needed in other samples to validate these findings and confirm the stability of well-being profiles. Studies sampling from organizations in other industries and/or employees with different work arrangements may produce different stability results. For example, employees in temporary employment situations (e.g., contractual arrangements) or those performing non-standard work (e.g., low-wage jobs with odd hours or non-standard work schedules) may more likely experience changes in their well-being over time because of the changing nature of their job. Also, employees in Sample 2 and Sample 3 were relatively older (averaging at 40s), which may have also increased stability of profiles. Mäkikangas and colleagues (2016) found that younger workers tend to display more changes in their well-being over time, possibly due to changes in their perceptions of job insecurity, changing attitudes toward their jobs, and their relatively little experience in coping with job stressors.

Covariates of latent transitions provided more context to the stability findings because some of them explained the profile movements between Time 1 to Time 2. These findings can also be translated for practical use to determine intervention strategies, including ways to encourage movement to favorable profiles or prevent movement to unfavorable profile. For example, an increase in physical health perceptions and exercise frequency were found to increase the chances employees would move from the discontented profile (unfavorable) to the contented and the highly contented profiles (favorable) over time. Therefore, organizations seeking to move employees from the discontented profile to either the contented or highly contented profile may benefit from increasing employees' physical health perceptions through, for example, employer-sponsored wellness programs that engage employees in health improvement and fitness awareness. They may also be able to increase employees' exercise frequency by encouraging participation in gym classes (e.g., free gym membership) or, if appropriate, allowing flexible work schedules for employees to engage in physical activities.

Conversely, an increase in disease burden was found to increase the chances employees would move from the contented profile (favorable) to the financial-dominant (unfavorable) profile over time – recall financial-dominant profile was an unfavorable profile because it was related to negative outcomes (e.g., poorer physical health perceptions and lower self-rated job performance). Organizations seeking to prevent movement from the contented to the financial-dominant profile can do so by reducing employees' disease burden through programs such as health risk screenings with goal-setting and follow-up sessions to help employees lessen health conditions/concerns such as high blood pressure and high cholesterol.

Once again, it is worth noting that the transition probabilities may change dramatically across different levels of a covariate in profiles occupying very small proportions of the samples. For example, the probabilities with which employees were classified to the lack of community well-being profile in Time 1 were very small across different levels of physical well-being covariates (see Tables 81 and 82; they ranged from 0% to 5%), therefore, profile movement over time involving just one person can produce very high transition probabilities. Therefore, these probabilities should be interpreted carefully in consideration of the profile sizes in Time 1, and they should not be directly compared to the probabilities in larger profiles (e.g., contented and highly contented profiles).

Given the current study found comparable negative outcomes between the discontented and the financial-dominant profiles, organizations may benefit from minimizing the prevalence of these profiles as well as the movement toward these profiles. For example, an increase job satisfaction and POS were shown to increase the probabilities with which employees would move from the financial-dominant profile (unfavorable) to the contented profile (favorable) over time. Organizations may, for instance, implement performance-related compensation system – which has been shown to increase job satisfaction (Green & Heywood, 2008). They may also adopt the job characteristics theory and increase job satisfaction through changes to job/work design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). POS may be increased by, for example, implementing supervisory supportive systems where managers are trained to provide more resources (e.g., emotional support and family supportive behaviors). Current study findings also indicate that increasing employees' job satisfaction and POS is potentially instrumental in increasing the probabilities with which employees would stay in the favorable profiles (i.e., contented and highly contented) profiles (or move between the two) over time.

Although demographic characteristics are largely unmodifiable, organizations may use the covariates and latent transition findings to indirectly inform policy changes in the workplace. For example, an increase in income was found to increase the probabilities with which employees would either stay or move to the contented and/or the highly contented profiles. An increase in income would also influence movements from the discontented and the financial-dominant profiles (unfavorable) to the contented profile (favorable). However, increasing income is not always feasible. In cases where income increase is not feasible, organizations may consider implementing employment assistance programs (EAPs) with financial wellness services for both employees and their family members, including financial consultation addressing financial concerns (e.g., loans and investment options), financial coaching (e.g., personalized action plan to manage finances), financial education, and financial planning.

Age is another demographic characteristics that is unmodifiable, but covariate findings related to age can potentially be used to inform policy changes in an organization. For example, older employees were less likely to move from the financially insecure profile to the contented profile over time. This implies that older employees may more likely feel financially insecure. Their financial insecurity may be alleviated by financial wellness services provided to older employees through an EAP.

Work productivity factors may also potentially be manipulated to encourage or prevent profile movement. For example, higher self-rated job performance was related to greater probabilities employees would move from the financial-dominant profile (unfavorable) to the highly contented profile (favorable). To increase job performance, training and refresher training programs may be implemented to increase employees' job-related efficacy beliefs and motivation to perform well at work. Resources may also be made available (e.g., manuals, coworker assistance, equipment) to allow more effective management of job demands and thus greater overall performance.

On the other hand, an increase in presenteeism was related to higher probabilities with which employees would stay in the financial-dominant profile (unfavorable) or the lack of community well-being profile and decrease the probabilities they would move to the contented profile (favorable). Therefore, to encourage movement toward the contented profile, organizations may address presenteeism issues by reducing external barriers at work (e.g., lack of training and technological issues), and minimizing job-related stressors experienced by employees (e.g., lack of resources and issues with supervisors/coworkers).

Study Implications

Theoretical Implications

The current study represented one of the first attempts to adopt a person-centered approach to understanding holistic and multidimensional well-being among employees. Traditional studies of employee well-being have primarily focused on relationships between variables (i.e., variable-centered approach), and failed to uncover any unobserved heterogeneity in the employee population with regard to psychosocial well-being.

Given the relative advantages of latent mixture modeling, the current study was able to identify six naturally occurring groups of employees who differed in their configurations of multidimensional well-being. Because well-being profile research is only beginning to emerge, the current study adopted a semi-inductive approach aiming to increase researchers' theoretical understanding of well-being profiles and facilitate theory advancement in this area.

The current findings provided preliminary evidence for a framework representing the most common configurations in the employee population. Data collected from a representative sample of employees suggested that, in addition to profiles with ordered level differences (low, high, and very high), shape differences also represented the co-occurrences of well-being among employees. Specifically, the dominance feature of shape profiles represented components with relatively higher and lower scores among a set of profile indicators. The shape profiles also suggested that purpose and social well-being were strongly linked in that they did not deviate from one another in any of the profiles. Perhaps this means that purpose and social well-being are conceptually closely intertwined and there may be a non-recursive or concurrent relationship between the two. Theoretically speaking, financial well-being probably has less overlaps with other Well-Being 5 constructs. The use of a representative employee sample should also address some of the generalizability concerns raised by person-centered researchers (e.g., sample-specific profile structures). Moreover, cross-validation profile analyses using two additional employee samples provided additional evidence supporting the 6-profile solution that is both theoretically meaningful and statistically justified.

In addition to profile identification, the current study examined profile antecedents and profile outcomes. These findings provided insights into the mechanisms and implications for both level and shape profiles. Some of the more consistent profile predictors were physical health perceptions, disease burden, exercise frequency, job satisfaction, POS, monthly household income, and education. Overall, these predictor findings suggested that the positive predictors were more strongly related to higher purpose, social, and community well-being than to financial well-being. In fact, financial-dominant profile (where purpose, social, and community well-being scores were low) was in some cases comparable to the discontented profile.

On the other hand, physical health perceptions, disease burden, exercise frequency, and self-rated job performance were consistent outcomes of profile membership. Overall, employees in the highly contented profile had the strongest physical well-being and self-rated job performance. Employees in the contented, financially insecure, and lack of community well-being had comparable outcomes, thus suggesting the importance of high purpose well-being and high social well-being. In many cases, employees in the financial-dominant and the discontented profiles experienced similar levels of outcomes, thus suggesting having only high levels of financial well-being – but low levels of purpose, social, and community well-being – was not sufficient to increase physical well-being or job performance.

The differing mechanisms and implications for each profile provided additional support for the use of a person-centered approach to investigating employee well-being. In a way, these findings invalidate the common assumption in a variable-centered perspective that all employee samples are homogeneous. That is, the current study findings provided support for a mixture of probability distributions representing qualitatively different subpopulations.

Moreover, the current study used physical well-being indicators as both predictors and outcomes of profiles in longitudinal analyses. These results provided additional evidence to the existing literature regarding the bi-directional or non-recursive nature of the relationship between physical and psychosocial dimensions of well-being, such that while physical well-being can predict psychosocial well-being profiles, the profiles can predict physical well-being as well. These findings also further support some researchers' argument that co-occurrences between the two should not be automatically assumed, and that the causal ordering of physical and psychosocial dimensions of health and well-being should be carefully modeled to disentangle their effects on one another.

Lastly, the small body of person-centered well-being research has largely been cross-sectional. The recent methodological advancements in latent mixture modeling allowed the investigation of more complex and dynamic processes of psychosocial well-being, such as changes in profile group membership overtime. The current study was able to conduct latent transition analyses using two-wave longitudinal responses to examine profile stability and transition patterns over time. The current findings revealed that intra-individual configurations of multidimensional well-being were largely stable over a time span of about 6 months to 1 year. Additionally, the inclusion of covariates in the latent transition models allowed a deeper understanding of how the predictors and outcomes explained transition probabilities.

Practical Implications

Complex modeling results (e.g., structural equation models and three-way interactions) in variable-centered studies may not always be practically meaningful to a lay audience without a background in statistics. A person-centered perspective presents managers and/or consultants with an easier and more intuitive interpretation of employee well-being (Meyer & Morin, 2016). A more effective understanding of the meaning and implications of person-centered research findings would also increase more buy-in and willingness to invest in needed intervention efforts. It would be easier to understand configurations of employee well-being based on typologies (or groups of people), as opposed to complex interaction effects, especially because people are usually naturally inclined to think in terms of categories of people (Zyphur, 2009). For example, it would be easier to explain to practitioners that employees in a highly contented profile would significantly outperform those in a financial-dominant profile than it would be to explain that the effects of purpose well-being on performance are moderated by the strength of social, financial, and community well-being. The advantage of comparing profiles to moderating relationships is even greater as the number of well-being indicators increases (Meyer et al., 2013b), especially if organizations seek to adopt a more holistic and multidimensional approach to employee well-being.

The mere identification of well-being profiles may not be entirely actionable. The results based on profile predictors can provide practitioners with information about the mechanisms in well-being profile development (i.e., factors contributing to the development of certain profiles). The understanding of how profiles are developed based on different mechanisms can help organizations identify leverage points and better tailor their intervention programs to the needs of specific employee groups, instead of simply providing a one-size-fits-all wellness package. For example, current study findings suggested that exercise frequency was one of the predictors which determined well-being profile membership among employees. Workplace wellness programs encouraging participation in regular exercising and physical activities (e.g., free gym membership, incentive-based participation) would likely lead to the development of more positive well-being profiles. Job redesigns may also be implemented by making physical activity more convenient (e.g., flexible work schedule and standing desks).

In addition, the examination of how profile membership distinguished employees on physical well-being and work productivity outcomes helped identify groups of employees who were most at risk for poor physical well-being and/or work-related productivity issues. Organizations can use this information to tailor well-being interventions according to the needs of specific groups of employees.

The findings regarding profile outcomes also established the equifinal nature of well-being configurations. For example, employees in the discontented profile and the financial-dominant profile had similarly low physical well-being and productivity outcomes. These findings revealed that there was not necessarily one single most/least optimal configuration of psychosocial well-being. Employees in various profile configurations may have comparable levels of physical well-being and job performance (e.g., contented, financially insecure and lack of community well-being profiles). Therefore, these findings can be used to provide insights into the different possible avenues organizations can leverage to change employees' physical health and work productivity. The different intervention avenues may also help organizations identify the most cost-effective way to implement well-being improvement programs. As opposed to improving all well-being dimensions to reach the contented state, targeting at purpose and social well-being to reach the financially insecure profile or the lack of community well-being profile would probably be equally as effective in reaching the same end state (i.e., increased physical well-being or increased job performance).

Finally, the examination of profile stability over time provided insights into the dynamic nature of employee well-being. The stability findings allowed a better understanding of whether and the manner in which employees transitioned between profiles or stayed in the same profiles over time. These findings can also be used to identify specific groups of employees who are in need of well-being interventions. For example, those who are more likely to transition to or stay in unfavorable profiles over time may be more in need of interventions. Results showing how the covariates (i.e., profile predictors and outcomes) explained the latent transition probabilities can also inform organizations of the specific factors related to the profile transitions. These findings can therefore be used to facilitate movement toward favorable profiles and/or prevent movement toward unfavorable profiles.

Study Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Among the strengths of the present study are the use of three independent employee samples, one of which is a representative sample that was randomly selected from the U.S. population, and the longitudinal measurement of each study variable. However, being one of the first studies to examine psychosocial well-being profiles among employees, the current study also has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the results and they also highlight potential areas for future research.

First, the current study relied on self-report survey data and thus co-variances between constructs may be inflated as a result of the common method effect (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Biased responses may also be a potential concern given possible social desirability tendencies in reporting personally relevant information, such as self-rated job performance – which had very high means. In some cases, self-report was the most appropriate option to capture psychological constructs, including the Well-Being 5 constructs. To the extent that it was possible, some of the other study variables were measured in an objective manner, in that perceptions were not assessed, including disease burden, tobacco use, BMI, income, education, age, and absenteeism. There may still be a possibility that participants did not provide honest responses given some of the questions may be viewed as intrusive. Future studies may collect objective measures of job performance by collecting performance reports from organizations, or gathering supervisory-rated performance assessment to reduce common method biases.

Second, most of the predictor and outcome measures used in the current study were single-item measures. Moreover, a few of these single-item measures were dichotomous, and thus limiting the range of possible variances (e.g., job satisfaction and employment status). The use of single-item measures to assess demographic-type information (e.g., age, income and education) is normally viewed as more acceptable, whereas single-item measures of attitudes, perceptions, or appraisals are more often discouraged in the psychology literature (Fisher et al., 2016). This typically represents a conflict between research and practice, such that researchers recommend multi-item measures and, in common human resource practice, it may not be practically feasible or efficient to include longer measures in surveys (Wanous & Hudy, 2001). There are also other compelling reasons for single-item measures, including minimizing respondent burden, increasing response rate, reducing criterion contamination, lowering survey administration costs, increasing the feasibility of longitudinal designs, and increasing face validity (Fisher et al., 2016). To the extent that it is possible, future studies may consider utilizing established multi-item measures to measure the same constructs in the current study (e.g., job performance and POS) and determine if findings are comparable.

One of the strengths of the current study was the use of larger samples. This was perhaps one of the reasons the current study was able to detect profiles with both level and shape differences. Even with larger samples, the prevalence of some profiles – particularly the shape profiles – was relatively small. This would mean that future studies would also need larger sample sizes to detect the smaller profiles. Future studies may also consider conducting factor mixture analyses to partial out level effects for clearer shape differences (Morin & Marsh, 2015). Factor mixture analyses can be used to specify a continuous latent factor that extracts the level variance that is shared by the profile indicators. That way, any "meaningful specific shape-based profiles would emerge over and above this continuous latent factor" (Morin & Marsh, 2015, p. 43). However, in cases where some of the profile groups cannot be replicated, it should not be automatically viewed as a limitation. There may be substantive reasons certain profile groups are not represented in a particular sample (Meyer et al., 2012). Different samples may have different naturally occurring groups, and the differences may be theoretically meaningful. For example, the present study relied primarily on full-time employees, future studies focusing on part-time workers, underemployed, or unemployed workers may find other distinct profile groups. This is yet another reason exploratory or inductive analyses are effective at identifying both unique and common profile groups.

Additional longitudinal research is also warranted to extend the current findings related to profile stability and covariates of transition probabilities. The time lapse between Time 1 and Time 2 in the current study may have been too short to sufficiently detect changes in well-being and thus movements in profile membership. Moreover, employees in traditional forms of employment (e.g., standard schedules) may not experience changes in well-being as strongly/frequently as those in non-standard forms of employment (e.g., precarious workers who are subject to unstable employment and job insecurity). If possible, future studies should adopt longitudinal designs with three or more time points. In that case, latent class growth modeling can be conducted to identify clusters of employees who are similar in their change trajectories over time. Also, a more specific understanding of how *changes* in covariates affect the development and transition of profiles over time could inform interventions.

Lastly, even though the literature widely documents the bi-directionality between physical and psychological aspects of health and well-being (e.g., Goldberg, 2010; Steptoe et al., 2015), future studies may consider including physical well-being indicators in profile analyses to determine the manner in which it co-occurs with other psychosocial well-being indicators. This would also allow more parameters to be freely estimated (e.g., item co-variances, within- and between-profile variances) in a mixture model given there would be an increase of information in the variance-covariance matrix. Future studies should also extend the current findings by testing other types of predictors and outcomes that may distinguish profile membership differently than those in the current study.

Conclusion

To date, employee well-being has primarily been studied from a variable-centered perspective. The current application of a person-centered approach provided insights into how multidimensional well-being co-occurred among employees. Overall, current study findings enhanced theoretical and practical understanding of qualitatively different subpopulations, the mechanisms and implications of these co-occurrences, the stability of profile membership over time, and factors influencing profile transitions. Continued research and applications are encouraged in order to gain a deeper understanding of employee holistic well-being and tailor workplace wellness interventions to the needs of specific groups of employees.

Appendix A

Study Hypotheses and Research Questions

Hypothesis 1: The following subgroups are proposed to emerge: (a) contented – high on all indicators, (b) discontented – low on all indicators, (c) unconcerned – moderate on all indicators, (e) purpose-dominant – high on purpose well-being, (e) social-dominant – high on social well-being, (f) financial-dominant – high on financial well-being, and (g) community-dominant – high on community well-being.

Hypothesis 2a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 2b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience poorer physical well-being.

Hypothesis 3a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience higher overall job satisfaction will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 3b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience higher overall job satisfaction will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience lower overall job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees who experience higher POS will be more likely to display the contented well-being pattern (high on all psychosocial indicators) than other patterns.

Hypothesis 4b: Among profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles), employees who experience higher POS will be more likely to display these patterns than those who experience lower POS.

Hypothesis 5a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees in the contented profile are expected to experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) than other profiles.

Hypothesis 5b: Employees in profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles) are expected to experience greater physical well-being (i.e., greater physical health perceptions, lower disease burden, healthier lifestyle behaviors, and lower body mass index) than those who are in the discontented or unconcerned profile.

Hypothesis 6a: Among profiles with level differences (contented, discontented, and unconcerned), employees in the contented profile are expected to have better productivity outcomes at work (i.e., higher self-rated job performance, lower work-related absenteeism, and lower work-related presenteeism) than other profiles.

Hypothesis 6b: Employees in profiles with shape differences (purpose-, social-, financial-, or community-dominant profiles) are expected to have better productivity outcomes at work (i.e., higher self-rated job performance, lower work-related absenteeism, and lower work-related presenteeism) than those who are in the discontented or unconcerned profile.

Research Question 1: What other common response patterns of psychosocial well-being can be identified among employees examined in the current study?

Research Question 2: Can SES indicators (income, education, and employment status) predict profile membership?

Research Question 3: Can age predict profile membership?

Research Question 4: Can the number of children living at home predict profile membership?

Research Question 5: How stable are psychosocial well-being profiles over time?

Research Question 6: Do the hypothesized profile predictors and outcomes (i.e., physical well-being, work-related factors, demographic characteristics, and work productivity) influence transitions between profiles?

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Table 1. Hypothesized Well-Being Profiles

Profile # and Labels	Purpose	Social	Financial	Community
1. Contented	High	High	High	High
2. Discontented	Low	Low	Low	Low
3. Unconcerned	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
4. Purpose-dominant	High	Moderate-low	Moderate-low	Moderate-low
5. Social-dominant	Moderate-low	High	Moderate-low	Moderate-low
6. Financial-dominant	Moderate-low	Moderate-low	High	Moderate-low
7. Community-dominant	Moderate-low	Moderate-low	Moderate-low	High

Table 2. Sample 1 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliability Estimates of Purpose, Social, Financial, and Community Well-Being

	N	Range	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4
1. Purpose WB	199,610	1.00 - 5.00	3.92	.80	(.77)			
2. Social WB	199,605	1.00 - 5.00	3.99	.84	.57**	(.70)		
3. Financial WB	199,616	1.00 - 5.00	3.96	.89	.42**	.41**	(.73)	
4. Community WB	199,612	1.00 - 5.00	3.69	.84	.50**	.41**	.39**	(.81)

Notes. WB = Well-Being. *SD* = Standard Deviation. ** $p < .01$. Values in parentheses are Cronbach's alpha.

Table 3. Sample 2 Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables in 2014 and 2015

	2014 (Time 1)					2015 (Time 2)				
	N	Range	Mean	*SD*	α	*N*	Range	Mean	*SD*	α
1. Purpose WB	3,462	1.00 - 5.00	3.80	.72	.82	3,513	1.20 - 5.00	3.84	.74	.84
2. Social WB	3,460	1.00 - 5.00	4.03	.75	.76	3,513	1.00 - 5.00	4.07	.76	.77
3. Financial WB	3,464	1.00 - 5.00	3.95	.85	.75	3,514	1.00 - 5.00	4.03	.81	.74
4. Community WB	3,462	1.00 - 5.00	3.86	.74	.84	3,514	1.00 - 5.00	3.94	.75	.85
5. PH Perceptions	3,462	1.00 - 5.00	3.67	.82	.85	3,513	1.00 - 5.00	3.72	.82	.86
6. Disease Burden[1]	3,468	0 - 9	1.11	1.42	/	3,523	0 - 8	1.00	1.35	/
7. Tobacco Use[2]	3,468	0 - 4	.10	.44	/	3,523	0 - 5	.08	.39	/
8. Exercise Freq.[3]	3,446	0 - 7	3.19	2.15	/	3,503	0 - 7	3.22	2.22	/
9. Body Mass Index	3,468	15.20 - 82.80	27.35	6.49	/	3,521	13.86 - 81.18	27.41	6.53	/
10. Job Satisfaction	3,208	1 - 2	1.91	.29	/	3,287	1 - 2	1.92	.27	/
11. POS	3,221	0 - 10	8.50	2.10	/	3,294	0 - 10	8.62	1.97	/
12. Income[4]	2,780	1 - 10	7.61	2.01	/	2,897	1 - 10	7.69	1.98	/
13. Education[5]	3,404	1 - 6	4.91	1.02	/	3,250	1 - 6	4.95	1.00	/
14. Age	3,468	19 - 83	42.77	12.31	/	3,523	18 - 83	41.49	12.01	/
15. # of Children[6]	3,464	0 - 9	.94	1.12	/	3,517	0 - 9	.95	1.14	/
16. Self-rated JP	3,249	0 - 10	8.60	1.26	/	3,340	0 - 10	8.63	1.22	/
17. Absenteeism	3,280	0 - 28	.34	1.46	/	3,349	0 - 28	.35	1.75	/
18. Presenteeism[7]	3,440	0 - 22	12.83	2.17	/	3,492	0 - 22	12.63	2.13	/

Notes. WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work.

Table 4. Sample 2 Cross-Sectional Correlation Matrix of Study Variables (2014 = Time 1; 2015 = Time 2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Purpose WB	/	.66**	.49**	.61**	.67**	-.20**	-.05**	.33**	-.12**	.41**	.38**	.10**	.08**	.05**	-.04*	.44**	-.08**	-.25**
2. Social WB	.65**	/	.52**	.60**	.62**	-.22**	-.07**	.32**	-.16**	.18**	.24**	.11**	.05**	.00	-.11**	.33**	-.03	-.22**
3. Financial WB	.44**	.49**	/	.52**	.49**	-.24**	-.09**	.25**	-.17**	.19**	.22**	.30**	.16**	.09**	-.10**	.26**	-.09**	-.21**
4. Community WB	.59**	.57**	.50**	/	.56**	-.19**	-.09**	.29**	-.13**	.22**	.25**	.19**	.09**	.10**	-.00	.31**	-.07**	-.17**
5. PH Perceptions	.67**	.59**	.48**	.55**	/	-.35**	-.08**	.55**	-.43**	.19**	.24**	.09**	.13**	.02	-.07**	.38**	-.12**	-.25**
6. Disease Burden[1]	-.21**	-.21**	-.21**	-.16**	-.34**	/	.05**	-.23**	.30**	-.09**	-.09**	.01	-.04*	.34**	-.02	-.13**	.17**	.13**
7. Tobacco Use[2]	-.06**	-.10**	-.08**	-.10**	-.11**	.03*	/	-.06**	.04*	-.04*	-.04*	-.05*	-.13**	.04*	-.04*	.01	.02	.02
8. Exercise Freq.[3]	.33**	.30**	.23**	.29**	.52**	-.24**	-.09**	/	-.27**	.08**	.12**	-.01	.10**	-.01	-.11**	.19**	-.08**	-.16**
9. Body Mass Index	-.15**	-.18**	-.18**	-.19**	-.43**	.29**	.05**	-.26**	/	-.02	-.06**	-.04*	-.13**	.17**	.06**	-.04*	.04*	.04**
10. Job Satisfaction	.42**	.21**	.20**	.22**	.22**	-.09**	-.03	.06**	-.05**	/	.36**	.09**	.01	.05**	.04*	.20**	-.05**	-.09**
11. POS	.38**	.23**	.16**	.22**	.23**	-.09**	-.05**	.09**	-.07**	.37**	/	.06**	.07**	-.01	-.01	.19**	-.04*	-.12**
12. Income[4]	.07**	.11**	.34**	.21**	.10**	.01	-.06**	.02	-.09**	.05*	.03	/	.24**	.33**	.22**	.06**	-.08**	-.01
13. Education[5]	.06**	.05**	.16**	.09**	.11**	-.02	-.11**	.08**	-.13**	.02	.07**	.27**	/	.04*	-.01	-.04*	-.06**	.03
14. Age	.00	-.01	.12**	.07**	.03	.34**	.01	-.03	.16**	.02	-.06**	.31**	.08**	/	.05**	.08**	.03*	.03
15. # of Children[6]	-.04*	-.08**	-.10**	-.02	-.07**	-.05**	-.04**	-.06**	.02	.03	-.01	.18**	-.01	.03	/	-.01	-.02	.07**
16. Self-rated JP	.39**	.30**	.20**	.25**	.34**	-.12**	-.01	.19**	-.04*	.19**	.17**	.03	-.06**	.06**	.01	/	-.11**	-.23**
17. Absenteeism	-.12**	-.11**	-.12**	-.11**	-.17**	.16**	.02	-.11**	.08**	-.12**	-.07**	-.08**	-.05**	-.01	-.02	-.12**	/	.01
18. Presenteeism[7]	-.26**	-.23**	-.21**	-.17**	-.24**	.13**	.02	-.12**	.07**	-.07**	-.14**	-.02	.05**	.00	.03	-.19**	.04*	/

Notes. Pairwise *N*s range from 2,603 to 3,468 in 2014 (Time 1), and from 2,703 to 3,523 in 2015 (Time 2). WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work. Values below the diagonal represent correlations between study variables in 2014 (Time 1). Values above the diagonal represent correlations between study variables in 2015 (Time 2). ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 5. Sample 2 Longitudinal Correlation Matrix of Study Variables between 2014 and 2015

		2015 (Time 2)																	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
2014 (Time 1)	1. Purpose WB	.60**	.47**	.37**	.43**	.48**	-.15**	-.04*	.25**	-.14**	.25**	.31**	.06**	.07**	.04*	-.07**	.29**	-.02	-.22**
	2. Social WB	.44**	.64**	.42**	.42**	.44**	-.18**	-.07**	.23**	-.16**	.15**	.21**	.10**	.04	-.01	-.10**	.24**	-.03	-.21**
	3. Financial WB	.33**	.38**	.67**	.40**	.39**	-.21**	-.06**	.19**	-.19**	.16**	.25**	.31**	.15**	.10**	-.12**	.18**	-.08**	-.20**
	4. Community WB	.42**	.43**	.40**	.68**	.42**	-.16**	-.10**	.22**	-.17**	.21**	.25**	.18**	.09**	.08**	-.03	.22**	-.06**	-.18**
	5. PH Perceptions	.47**	.46**	.41**	.42**	.72**	-.32**	-.07**	.41**	-.43**	.17**	.23**	.08**	.13**	.05*	-.08**	.29**	-.06**	-.21**
	6. Disease Burden[1]	-.16**	-.21**	-.24**	-.18**	-.30**	.80**	.05*	-.21**	.29**	-.07**	-.11**	.00	-.04*	.32**	-.06**	-.09**	.11**	.14**
	7. Tobacco Use[2]	-.06**	-.08**	-.09**	-.08**	-.09**	.04*	.63**	-.06**	.04	-.05**	-.04	-.06**	-.14**	.04	-.06**	.02	.00	.03
	8. Exercise Freq.[3]	.26**	.25**	.22**	.24**	.43**	-.21**	-.06**	.60**	-.25**	.07**	.11**	.02	.13**	.02	-.08**	.17**	-.04*	-.10**
	9. Body Mass Index	-.09**	-.15**	-.18**	-.13**	-.40**	.31**	.02	-.24**	.94**	-.02	-.06**	-.06**	-.15**	.17**	.02	-.03	.04*	.04
	10. Job Satisfaction	.22**	.14**	.15**	.16**	.14**	-.06**	-.01	.05**	-.03	.31**	.24**	.04	.01	.02	.02	.05*	-.02	-.09**
	11. POS	.22**	.17**	.14**	.15**	.15**	-.08**	-.02	.06**	-.05*	.16**	.52**	.01	.06**	-.06**	-.03	.07**	-.02	-.06**
	12. Income[4]	.10**	.09**	.29**	.19**	.12**	-.03	-.08**	.01	-.11**	.08**	.09**	.70**	.25**	.27**	.19**	.06**	-.04	-.07**
	13. Education[5]	.05*	.04*	.12**	.07**	.13**	-.05*	-.09**	.08**	-.15**	.01	.08**	.23**	.92**	.01	.01	-.06**	-.05*	.01
	14. Age	.06**	-.01	.08**	.08**	.03	.34**	.02	-.02	.15**	.07**	.01	.28**	-.01	1.00**	-.00	.10**	.04*	-.02
	15. # of Children[6]	-.01	-.09**	-.08**	.05**	-.02	-.06**	-.04**	-.06**	.01	.03	.01	.23**	.00	.04	.91**	.03	-.03	.04*
	16. Self-rated JP	.29**	.22**	.20**	.18**	.27**	-.10**	.00	.15**	-.02	.11**	.11**	.02	-.06**	.09**	-.02	.47**	-.03	-.19**
	17. Absenteeism	-.09**	-.13**	-.13**	-.12**	-.13**	.16**	.01	-.06**	.04*	-.05*	-.04	-.07**	-.03	-.04	-.02	-.07**	.10**	.05*
	18. Presenteeism[7]	-.24**	-.23**	-.18**	-.19**	-.21**	.08**	.00	-.12**	.06**	-.09**	-.12**	-.02	.02	-.05*	.04*	-.20**	.00	.37**

Notes. Pairwise *N*s range from 1,858 to 2,477. WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 6. Sample 3 Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables in 2014 and 2015

	2014 (Time 1)					2015 (Time 2)				
	N	Range	Mean	*SD*	α	*N*	Range	Mean	*SD*	α
1. Purpose WB	1,708	1.00 - 5.00	3.64	.80	.83	1,576	1.00 - 5.00	3.69	.85	.87
2. Social WB	1,709	1.00 - 5.00	3.92	.82	.77	1,576	1.00 - 5.00	3.94	.83	.78
3. Financial WB	1,712	1.00 - 5.00	3.80	.93	.77	1,579	1.00 - 5.00	3.89	.90	.76
4. Community WB	1,713	1.00 - 5.00	3.79	.78	.84	1,580	1.00 - 5.00	3.85	.80	.86
5. PH Perceptions	1,711	1.00 - 5.00	3.60	.84	.85	1,575	1.00 - 5.00	3.54	.88	.87
6. Disease Burden[1]	1,717	0 - 10	1.26	1.40	/	1,589	0 - 14	1.26	1.50	/
7. Tobacco Use[2]	1,717	0 - 4	.34	.71	/	1,589	0 - 4	.29	.68	/
8. Exercise Freq.[3]	1,691	0 - 7	3.15	2.36	/	1,555	0 - 7	2.99	2.31	/
9. Body Mass Index	1,717	16.72 - 70.69	30.13	6.16	/	1,589	16.67 - 75.77	30.81	6.91	/
10. Job Satisfaction	1,643	1 - 2	1.91	.28	/	1,452	1 - 2	1.92	.28	/
11. POS	1,652	0 - 10	8.40	2.18	/	1,451	0 - 10	8.34	2.26	/
12. Income[4]	1,196	1 - 10	6.51	2.12	/	1,089	1 - 10	6.71	2.02	/
13. Education[5]	1,667	1 - 6	3.49	1.25	/	1,517	1 - 6	3.62	1.29	/
14. Age	1,717	20 - 80	47.65	11.05	/	1,589	20 - 78	47.13	11.00	/
15. # of Children[6]	1,715	0 - 7	.97	1.01	/	1,581	0 - 10	1.00	1.14	/
16. Self-rated JP	1,677	0 - 10	9.14	1.16	/	1,470	0 - 10	9.14	1.13	/
17. Absenteeism	1,691	0 - 28	.35	2.24	/	1,494	0 - 28	.41	2.48	/
18. Presenteeism[7]	1,708	1 - 18	10.09	1.91	/	1,558	0 - 17	10.06	1.70	/

Notes. WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work.

Table 7. Sample 3 Cross-Sectional Correlation Matrix of Study Variables (2014 = Time 1; 2015 = Time 2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Purpose WB	/	.72**	.57**	.68**	.74**	-.20**	-.10**	.33**	-.18**	.42**	.43**	.15**	.02	.07**	-.04	.37**	-.10**	-.18**
2. Social WB	.68**	/	.57**	.65**	.66**	-.16**	-.10**	.31**	-.18**	.23**	.31**	.20**	.00	.11**	-.11**	.36**	-.10**	-.21**
3. Financial WB	.53**	.52**	/	.54**	.57**	-.26**	-.09**	.24**	-.20**	.26**	.28**	.28**	.00	.13**	-.13**	.22**	-.03	-.19**
4. Community WB	.62**	.58**	.49**	/	.59**	-.14**	-.08**	.25**	-.14**	.26**	.32**	.15**	.05	.08**	-.02	.28**	-.04	-.16**
5. PH Perceptions	.70**	.62**	.51**	.55**	/	-.34**	-.11**	.48**	-.42**	.22**	.29**	.13**	.03	.13**	-.08**	.36**	-.13**	-.22**
6. Disease Burden[1]	-.14**	-.14**	-.19**	-.08**	-.31**	/	-.02	-.15**	.27**	-.12**	-.10**	-.06	-.06*	.28**	-.12**	-.03	.12**	.03
7. Tobacco Use[2]	-.10**	-.10**	-.12**	-.09**	-.13**	.00	/	-.08**	-.05	.01	-.03	-.07*	-.14**	-.03	.04	-.02	.04	.04
8. Exercise Freq.[3]	.33**	.29**	.21**	.25**	.47**	-.20**	-.08**	/	-.21**	.03	.09**	.00	.05	.02	-.02	.20**	-.07**	-.17**
9. Body Mass Index	-.15**	-.13**	-.17**	-.11**	-.38**	.25**	-.01	-.23**	/	-.05	-.05*	-.03	-.07**	-.02	.02	-.03	.01	.02
10. Job Satisfaction	.42**	.21**	.27**	.23**	.25**	-.03	00	.05*	-.09**	/	.41**	.09**	-.06*	.03	-.00	.10**	-.04	-.03
11. POS	.42**	.30**	.25**	.28**	.28**	-.04	-.04	.11**	-.09**	.38**	/	.08**	-.054*	.07**	-.03	.25**	-.03	-.11**
12. Income[4]	.13**	.10**	.23**	.13**	.09**	.02	-.05	.01	.02	.04	.04	/	.07*	.16**	.05	.07*	-.00	-.01
13. Education[5]	-.02	-.02	.03	-.01	.01	-.07**	-.12**	.04	-.05*	-.07**	-.03	.11**	/	-.16**	.07*	-.16**	.02	.03
14. Age	.12**	.12**	.19**	.13**	.16**	.27**	-.01	-.01	-.01	.12**	.07**	.20**	-.16**	/	-.31**	.20**	.01	-.07**
15. # of Children[6]	-.04	-.11**	-.17**	-.03	-.06**	-.11**	.01	.01	-.01	.00	.00	.02	.06*	-.26**	/	-.04	.03	.09**
16. Self-rated JP	.29**	.27**	.21**	.20**	.31**	-.05*	-.05	.15**	-.00	.10**	.22**	.07*	-.12**	.14**	-.05	/	-.26**	-.17**
17. Absenteeism	-.04	-.02	-.03	-.01	-.10**	.10**	.03	-.08**	.07**	-.02	-.06*	-.04	-.04	.04	-.06*	-.43**	/	-.04
18. Presenteeism[7]	-.21**	-.22**	-.23**	-.17**	-.24**	.07**	.03	-.16**	-.01	-.06*	-.10**	-.02	.10**	-.12**	-.09**	-.21**	-.04	/

Notes. Pairwise *N*s range from 1,155 to 1,717 in 2014 (Time 1), and from 1,009 to 1,589 in 2015 (Time 2). WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work. Values below the diagonal represent correlations between study variables in 2014 (Time 1). Values above the diagonal represent correlations between study variables in 2015 (Time 2). ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 8. Sample 3 Longitudinal Correlation Matrix of Study Variables between 2014 and 2015

		2015 (Time 2)																	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
2014 (Time 1)	1. Purpose WB	.66**	.52**	.43**	.46**	.56**	-.23**	-.12**	.33**	-.16**	.28**	.31**	.21**	-.06	.11**	.03	.37**	-.08*	-.18**
	2. Social WB	.57**	.70**	.47**	.50**	.53**	-.19**	-.09*	.33**	-.12**	.18**	.28**	.25**	-.06	.12**	-.06	.37**	-.08*	-.15**
	3. Financial WB	.44**	.45**	.69**	.41**	.46**	-.26**	-.10**	.21**	-.18**	.18**	.19**	.31**	-.02	.17**	-.09*	.25**	-.10**	-.15**
	4. Community WB	.52**	.48**	.45**	.70**	.45**	-.11**	-.06	.25**	-.09*	.21**	.25**	.17**	-.03	.11**	.04	.29**	-.08*	-.10**
	5. PH Perceptions	.58**	.52**	.46**	.46**	.74**	-.34**	-.11**	.44**	-.36**	.17**	.25**	.19**	-.02	.14**	-.02	.37**	-.12**	-.20**
	6. Disease Burden[1]	-.14**	-.16**	-.22**	-.10**	-.29**	.82**	-.02	-.14**	.24**	-.07	-.08*	-.05	-.08*	.28**	-.16**	-.03	.09*	.10**
	7. Tobacco Use[2]	-.07	-.02	-.03	-.00	-.08*	-.01	.79**	-.03	-.01	.02	-.05	-.03	-.15**	-.00	.02	.01	-.05	.02
	8. Exercise Freq.[3]	.24**	.25**	.14**	.20**	.38**	-.21**	-.08*	.61**	-.24**	.01	.08*	.04	.06	.01	.03	.18**	-.07*	-.10**
	9. Body Mass Index	-.15**	-.16**	-.21**	-.14**	-.39**	.28**	-.01	-.23**	.93**	-.05	-.04	-.07	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.01	.04	-.00
	10. Job Satisfaction	.30**	.17**	.17**	.18**	.21**	-.08*	.02	.09*	-.07	.39**	.25**	.06	-.13**	.16**	.05	.17**	-.08*	-.04
	11. POS	.34**	.26**	.23**	.27**	.29**	-.12**	-.01	.12**	-.11**	.31**	.57**	.11*	-.03	.07	.01	.25**	-.15**	-.06
	12. Income[4]	.16**	.18**	.27**	.14**	.14**	-.09*	-.06	.08	-.05	.11*	.05	.55**	.02	.17**	.08	.10*	-.06	-.04
	13. Education[5]	-.04	-.04	-.02	.00	.02	-.10**	-.10**	.06	-.04	-.08*	-.01	.06	.92**	-.19**	.10**	-.14**	-.04	.04
	14. Age	.10**	.12**	.13**	.07	.12**	.26**	-.04	.05	-.05	.13**	.08*	.15**	-.18**	1.00**	-.36**	.20**	.02	-.09*
	15. # of Children[6]	-.02	-.09*	-.09*	-.01	-.00	-.16**	.05	.02	-.07	-.05	.02	.05	.06	-.30**	.88**	-.00	-.04	.06
	16. Self-rated JP	.26**	.27**	.15**	.23**	.28**	-.01	-.04	.18**	.04	.07	.18**	.13**	-.17**	.21**	-.06	.51**	-.03	-.22**
	17. Absenteeism	-.03	.00	.04	-.00	-.09*	.08*	-.03	-.04	.02	-.04	-.03	.01	-.07	.05	-.05	-.06	.47**	-.05
	18. Presenteeism[7]	-.15**	-.18**	-.18**	-.15**	-.19**	.09*	.02	-.13**	-.01	-.04	-.07	-.14**	.08*	-.10**	.13**	-.20**	-.11**	.42**

Notes. Pairwise *N*s range from 446 to 772. WB = Well-Being. PH = Physical Health. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. JP = Job Performance. [1]Number of health conditions. [2]Types of tobacco products. [3]Exercise Frequency: Days per week. [4]Monthly Household Income (Ordinal variable). [5]Highest level of education (Ordinal variable). [6]Number of children living at home. [7]Additive index of barriers/stressors at work. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 9. Model Comparisons for Exploratory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 1

	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy	VLMR (-2LL difference)	LMR Adjusted LRT
2-profile solution	1820379.19	1820511.85	1820470.53	.80	173574.02**	170775.38**
3-profile solution	1780653.17	1780836.85	1780779.64	.75	39736.02**	39095.33**
4-profile solution	1753046.02	1753280.72	1753207.62	.81	27617.15**	27171.86**
5-profile solution	1736221.56	1736507.27	1736418.29	.78	16834.47**	16563.03**
6-profile solution	**1723719.37**	**1724056.11**	**1723951.23**	**.78**	**12512.19****	**12310.45****
7-profile solution	1713967.19	1714354.95	1714234.19	.80	9762.18**	9604.78**
8-profile solution	1704658.10	1705096.88	1704960.23	.81	9319.09**	9168.83**

Notes. AIC = Akaike information criterion. BIC = Bayesian information criterion. aBIC = sample-size-adjusted BIC. VLMR = Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin. LMR = Lo-Mendell-Rubin Adjusted Likelihood Ratio Test. ** $p < .01$. The final best-fitting model was the 6-profile solution.

Table 10. Average Latent Profile Probabilities for Most Likely Profile Membership (Row) by Latent Profile (Column) for Exploratory 6-Profile Model in Sample 1

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Profile 1	**.88**	.00	.00	.06	.04	.01
Profile 2	.00	**.78**	.13	.04	.02	.03
Profile 3	.00	.11	**.89**	.00	.00	.00
Profile 4	.04	.11	.00	**.81**	.01	.03
Profile 5	.03	.07	.02	.02	**.85**	.01
Profile 6	.01	.12	.02	.03	.02	**.80**

Table 11. Composition of Profiles from Exploratory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 1

		Purpose	Social	Financial	Community	Profile Size[1]	Profile Proportions[1]
2-profile							
	Profile 1	3.03	3.11	3.18	2.92	52815.42	.26
	Profile 2	4.23	4.31	4.24	3.96	146801.58	.74
3-profile							
	Profile 1	2.47	2.55	2.69	2.57	17460.78	.09
	Profile 2	3.53	3.64	3.70	3.33	73892.12	.37
	Profile 3	4.40	4.47	4.34	4.11	108264.10	.54
4-profile							
	Profile 1	2.36	2.50	2.42	2.49	12810.81	.06
	Profile 2	3.88	3.82	2.24	3.39	15319.44	.08
	Profile 3	3.37	3.51	3.91	3.28	59103.27	.30
	Profile 4	4.38	4.44	4.39	4.08	112383.48	.56
5-profile							
	Profile 1	3.94	3.86	2.33	3.47	15811.5	.08
	Profile 2	2.48	2.63	1.83	2.45	8331.90	.04
	Profile 3	3.64	3.79	4.02	3.45	66144.22	.33
	Profile 4	4.46	4.51	4.46	4.15	92567.34	.46
	Profile 5	2.63	2.75	3.56	2.86	16762.00	.08
6-profile							
	Profile 1	**2.55**	**2.70**	**1.88**	**2.27**	**8705.83**	**.04**
	Profile 2	**3.64**	**3.77**	**4.04**	**3.63**	**60583.87**	**.30**
	Profile 3	**4.46**	**4.52**	**4.46**	**4.21**	**89249.38**	**.45**
	Profile 4	**2.65**	**2.63**	**3.57**	**2.93**	**15165.26**	**.08**
	Profile 5	**3.89**	**3.83**	**2.29**	**3.66**	**14116.84**	**.07**
	Profile 6	**3.79**	**4.04**	**3.84**	**2.12**	**11795.82**	**.06**

Table 11. (cont.)

		Purpose	Social	Financial	Community	Profile Size[1]	Profile Proportions[1]
7-profile							
	Profile 1	3.27	3.32	2.00	2.85	10320.70	.05
	Profile 2	4.20	4.06	2.49	3.96	9986.10	.05
	Profile 3	3.65	3.79	4.04	3.64	61264.91	.31
	Profile 4	3.89	4.07	3.92	2.13	10806.27	.05
	Profile 5	2.03	2.23	1.96	2.06	4471.22	.02
	Profile 6	2.64	2.79	3.61	2.92	16389.56	.08
	Profile 7	4.84	4.52	4.48	4.21	86378.24	.43
8-profile							
	Profile 1	2.01	2.21	2.02	1.88	3940.84	.02
	Profile 2	3.54	3.60	2.19	2.07	5524.36	.03
	Profile 3	2.93	2.99	2.02	3.43	6869.12	.03
	Profile 4	3.94	4.11	4.06	2.20	10972.61	.05
	Profile 5	2.65	2.80	3.66	2.87	15442.75	.08
	Profile 6	4.20	4.06	2.47	3.94	10012.79	.05
	Profile 7	3.66	3.79	4.04	3.65	61815.99	.31
	Profile 8	4.49	4.53	4.48	4.24	85038.53	.43

Notes. *N* = 199,617. [1]Profile counts and proportions for the latent profiles are based on the estimated models. The 6-profile model (boldfaced) was selected as the final best-fitting model solution, and its parameters were used for cross-validation and confirmatory tests in Sample 2 and Sample 3.

Table 12a. Profile Description of 6-Profile Model in Sample 1

Profile # and Labels	**Description**
1. Discontented	Consistently lower-than-average scores across four well-being components
2. Contented	Consistently moderate-high scores across four well-being components
3. Highly contented	Consistently very high scores across four well-being components
4. Financial-dominant	Lower-than-average scores on purpose, social, and community well-being; Moderate to high score on financial well-being
5. Financially insecure	Moderate-high scores on purpose, social, and community well-being; low score on financial well-being
6. Lack of community well-being	Moderate-high scores on purpose, social, and financial well-being; low score on community well-being

Note. This 6-profile model was selected as the final best-fitting model solution, and its parameters were used for cross-validation and confirmatory tests in Sample 2 and Sample 3.

Table 12b. Profile Description of 6-Profile Model in Sample 1

Profile # and Labels	Purpose	Social	Financial	Community
1. Discontented	Low	Low	Low	Low
2. Contented	Moderate-High	Moderate-High	Moderate-High	Moderate-High
3. Highly contented	Very high	Very high	Very high	Very high
4. Financial-dominant	Low	Low	Moderate-High	Low
5. Financially insecure	Moderate-High	Moderate-High	Low	Moderate-High
6. Lack of community well-being	Moderate-High	Moderate-High	Moderate-High	Low

Note. This 6-profile model was selected as the final best-fitting model solution, and its parameters were used for cross-validation and confirmatory tests in Sample 2 and Sample 3.

Table 13. Model Comparisons for Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)

Model Description	# of Freed Intercepts	*-2LL*	Δ*-2LL*	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy
1. All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values	0	26687.02	/	26705.02	26760.37	26731.77	.83
2. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3	1	26469.70	217.32	26489.71	26551.21	26519.43	.83
3. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P3	2	26387.24	82.46	26409.23	26476.88	26441.93	.83
4. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P1	3	26328.38	58.86	26352.37	26426.17	26388.04	.83
5. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P2	4	26243.56	84.82	26269.55	26349.50	26308.20	.84
6. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P6	**5**	**26215.72**	**27.84**	**26243.73**	**26329.83**	**26285.35**	**.84**
All intercepts freed	24	25881.72	334.00 (17.58)[1]	25947.71	26150.67	26045.81	.78

Notes. *N* = 3,464. Intercepts were freed incrementally based on the largest modification indices in each model. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being. LL = Log-Likelihood. AIC = Akaike information criterion. BIC = Bayesian information criterion. aBIC = sample-size-adjusted BIC. The final confirmatory profile model selected for subsequent analyses is in boldface. [1]Average change in -2 Log-Likelihood per degree of freedom/per freed intercept.

Table 14. Composition of Profiles from Confirmatory 6-Profile Models in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size[1]**	**Profile Proportions[1]**
<u>All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	127.79	.04
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1282.91	.37
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	1454.89	.42
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	265.18	.08
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	273.52	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	59.71	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	126.31	.04
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1333.70	.39
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.43**	1400.03	.40
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	259.46	.07
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	268.18	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	76.32	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P3</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	125.92	.04
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1250.41	.36
3. Highly contented	**4.33**	4.52	4.46	**4.41**	1477.11	.43
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	261.55	.08
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	269.93	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	79.07	.02

Table 14 (cont.)

	Purpose	Social	Financial	Community	Profile Size[1]	Profile Proportions[1]
<u>Freed Intercept of Community WB in P1</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.68**	146.62	.04
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1252.89	.36
3. Highly contented	**4.33**	4.52	4.46	**4.41**	1476.34	.43
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	250.43	.07
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	258.19	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	79.52	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P2</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.68**	147.32	.04
2. Contented	**3.48**	3.77	4.04	3.63	1210.88	.35
3. Highly contented	**4.33**	4.52	4.46	**4.39**	1532.13	.44
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	233.20	.07
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	261.04	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	79.44	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P6</u>[2]						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.70**	146.39	.04
2. Contented	**3.49**	3.77	4.04	3.63	1210.78	.35
3. Highly contented	**4.33**	4.52	4.46	**4.39**	1530.11	.44
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	226.73	.07
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	261.02	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	**3.38**	4.04	3.84	2.12	88.97	.03

Table 14 (cont.)

	Purpose	Social	Financial	Community	Profile Size[1]	Profile Proportions[1]
All intercepts freed[3]						
1. Discontented	**2.86**	**2.89**	**1.90**	**2.82**	177.14	.05
2. Contented	**3.89**	**4.16**	**4.19**	**4.00**	1334.10	.39
3. Highly contented	**4.55**	**4.76**	**4.62**	**4.55**	845.57	.24
4. Financial-dominant	**2.69**	**2.54**	**3.33**	**2.74**	169.51	.05
5. Financially insecure	**3.86**	**4.01**	**2.54**	**3.64**	266.26	.08
†Low purpose/Financial-dominant	**3.18**	**3.53**	**3.86**	**3.37**	671.42	.19

Notes. *N* = 3,464. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being. New intercept values due to intercepts being freed are in boldface. [1]Profile counts and proportions for the latent profiles are based on the estimated models. †Instead of the "lack of community well-being" profile, this profile emerged as part of the model with all intercepts freely estimated. [2]These profiles are plotted in Figure 10. [3]These profiles are plotted in Figure 11.

Table 15. Intercept Changes from Fixed Model (Based on Sample 1 Values) to Free Models in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)

	Freed Intercepts (Incrementally Based on Modification Indices)				
	1. P3 Community WB	2. P3 Purpose WB	3. P1 Community WB	4. P2 Purpose WB	5. P6 Purpose WB
Sample 1 Values	4.21	4.64	2.27	3.64	3.79
Estimated Sample 2 Intercepts					
1	4.43				
1, 2	4.41	4.33			
1, 2, 3	4.41	4.33	2.68		
1, 2, 3, 4	4.39	4.33	2.68	3.48	
1, 2, 3, 4, 5	4.39	4.33	2.70	3.49	3.38
Change in Profile Interpretation	No	No	No	No	No

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being.

Table 16. Average Latent Profile Probabilities for Most Likely Profile Membership (Row) by Latent Profile (Column) for 6-Profile Confirmatory Model in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Discontented	**.89**	.00	.00	.06	.04	.01
2. Contented	.00	**.85**	.10	.03	.02	.01
3. Highly contented	.00	.08	**.92**	.00	.00	.00
4. Financial-dominant	.05	.08	.00	**.85**	.01	.02
5. Financially insecure	.03	.07	.02	.01	**.86**	.01
6. Lack of community well-being	.01	.10	.00	.06	.02	**.81**

Note. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Five intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 13).

Table 17. Model Comparisons for Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)

Model Description	# of Freed Intercepts	*-2LL*	Δ*-2LL*	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy
1. All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values	0	-26738.48	/	26756.47	26811.95	26783.36	.83
2. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3	1	-26343.42	395.06	26363.42	26425.07	26393.29	.85
3. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5	2	-26245.82	97.60	26267.83	26335.64	26300.69	.85
4. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P2	3	-26164.2	81.62	26188.21	26262.19	26224.06	.84
5. Freed Intercept of Social WB in P3	4	-26057.98	106.22	26083.97	26164.12	26122.81	.85
6. Freed Intercept of Social WB in P2	5	-25999.48	58.50	26027.48	26113.79	26069.31	.85
7. Freed Intercept of Social WB in P4	6	-25938.74	60.74	25968.74	26061.21	26013.55	.84
8. Freed Intercept of Financial WB in P3	**7**	**-25884.36**	**54.38**	**25916.36**	**26015.00**	**25964.16**	**.85**
All intercepts freed	24	-25689.12	195.24 (11.48)[1]	25755.13	25958.58	25853.72	.83

Notes. *N* = 3,516. Intercepts were freed incrementally based on the largest modification indices in each model. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. LL = Log-Likelihood. AIC = Akaike information criterion. BIC = Bayesian information criterion. aBIC = sample-size-adjusted BIC. The final confirmatory profile model selected for subsequent analyses is in boldface. [1]Average change in -2 Log-Likelihood per degree of freedom/per freed intercept.

Table 18. Composition of Profiles from Confirmatory 6-Profile Models in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size**[1]	**Profile Proportions**[1]
<u>All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	111.05	.03
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1209.91	.34
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	1667.04	.47
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	274.22	.08
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	206.01	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	47.77	.01
<u>Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	108.45	.03
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1278.64	.36
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.48**	1595.88	.45
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	263.47	.07
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	202.65	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	66.90	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	100.69	.03
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	1269.08	.36
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.48**	1589.32	.45
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	253.48	.07
5. Financially insecure	**3.48**	3.83	2.29	3.66	224.91	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	69.52	.02

Table 18 (cont.)

	Purpose	Social	Financial	Community	Profile Size[1]	Profile Proportions[1]
Freed Intercept of Community WB in P2						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	100.09	.03
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	**3.77**	1314.50	.37
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.49**	1532.07	.44
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	264.57	.08
5. Financially insecure	**3.48**	3.83	2.29	3.66	221.29	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	83.49	.02
Freed Intercept of Social WB in P3						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	100.011	.03
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	**3.79**	1363.30	.39
3. Highly contented	4.46	**4.66**	4.46	**4.50**	1483.07	.42
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	266.97	.08
5. Financially insecure	**3.48**	3.83	2.29	3.66	218.65	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	84.00	.02
Freed Intercept of Social WB in P2						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	99.13	.03
2. Contented	3.64	**3.89**	4.04	**3.81**	1422.89	.40
3. Highly contented	4.46	**4.67**	4.46	**4.52**	1406.38	.40
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	287.11	.08
5. Financially insecure	**3.48**	3.83	2.29	3.66	217.17	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	83.33	.02

Table 18 (cont.)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size[1]**	**Profile Proportions[1]**
<u>Freed Intercept of Social WB in P4</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	100.21	.03
2. Contented	3.64	**3.91**	4.04	**3.83**	1396.01	.40
3. Highly contented	4.46	**4.67**	4.46	**4.52**	1394.17	.40
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	**2.92**	3.57	2.93	339.93	.10
5. Financially insecure	**3.51**	3.83	2.29	3.66	209.67	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	76.01	.02
<u>Freed Intercept of Financial WB in P3[2]</u>						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	100.76	.03
2. Contented	3.64	**3.92**	4.04	**3.84**	1427.05	.41
3. Highly contented	4.46	**4.68**	**4.56**	**4.53**	1357.3	.39
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	**2.93**	3.57	2.93	341.22	.10
5. Financially insecure	**3.52**	3.83	2.29	3.66	214.39	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	75.25	.02
<u>All intercepts freed[3]</u>						
1. Discontented	**2.59**	**2.66**	**2.10**	**2.29**	121.90	.03
2. Contented	**3.79**	**4.08**	**4.14**	**3.94**	1447.75	.41
3. Highly contented	**4.54**	**4.73**	**4.60**	**4.59**	1132.50	.32
4. Financial-dominant	**2.93**	**3.09**	**3.67**	**3.29**	484.44	.14
5. Financially insecure	**3.51**	**3.64**	**2.38**	**3.66**	221.20	.06
6. Lack of community well-being	**3.59**	**3.90**	**3.74**	**2.27**	108.22	.03

Notes. *N* = 3,516. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. New intercept values due to intercepts being freed are in boldface. [1]Profile counts and proportions for the latent profiles are based on the estimated models. [2]These profiles are plotted in Figure 12. [3]These profiles are plotted in Figure 13.

Table 19. Intercept Changes from Fixed Model (Based on Sample 1 Values) to Free Models in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)

	Freed Intercepts (Incrementally Based on Modification Indices)						
	1. P3 Community WB	2. P5 Purpose WB	3. P2 Community WB	4. P3 Social WB	5. P2 Social WB	6. P4 Social WB	7. P3 Financial WB
Sample 1 Values	4.21	3.89	3.63	4.52	3.77	2.63	4.46
Estimated Sample 2 Intercepts							
1	4.48						
1, 2	4.48	3.48					
1, 2, 3	4.49	3.48	3.77				
1, 2, 3, 4	4.50	3.48	3.79	4.66			
1, 2, 3, 4, 5	4.52	3.48	3.81	4.67	3.89		
1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	4.52	3.51	3.83	4.67	3.91	2.92	
1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	4.53	3.52	3.84	4.68	3.92	2.93	4.56
Change in Profile Interpretation	No	No	No	No	No	No	No

Notes. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being.

Table 20. Average Latent Profile Probabilities for Most Likely Profile Membership (Row) by Latent Profile (Column) for 6-Profile Confirmatory Model in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Discontented	**.89**	.00	.00	.06	.04	.00
2. Contented	.00	**.87**	.08	.03	.02	.01
3. Highly contented	.00	.09	**.92**	.00	.00	.00
4. Financial-dominant	.02	.09	.00	**.85**	.02	.02
5. Financially insecure	.02	.08	.00	.04	**.86**	.00
6. Lack of community well-being	.01	.07	.01	.05	.02	**.84**

Note. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Seven intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 17).

Table 21. Model Comparisons for Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)

Model Description	# of Freed Intercepts	*-2LL*	Δ-*2LL*	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy
1. All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values	0	-14063.16	/	14081.15	14130.17	14101.58	.81
2. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P1	1	-13965.56	97.6	13985.57	14040.03	14008.26	.81
3. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P2	2	-13844.14	121.42	13866.13	13926.05	13891.10	.83
4. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3	3	-13742.16	101.98	13766.16	13831.52	13793.39	.83
5. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5	4	-13698.86	43.3	13724.87	13795.67	13754.37	.83
6. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P3	**5**	**-13675.64**	**23.22**	**13703.64**	**13779.89**	**13735.41**	**.83**
All intercepts freed	24	-13543.26	132.38 (6.97)[1]	13609.26	13789.00	13684.16	.82

Notes. *N* = 1,714. Intercepts were freed incrementally based on the largest modification indices in each model. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. LL = Log-Likelihood. AIC = Akaike information criterion. BIC = Bayesian information criterion. aBIC = sample-size-adjusted BIC. The final confirmatory profile model selected for subsequent analyses is in boldface. [1]Average change in -2 Log-Likelihood per degree of freedom/per freed intercept.

Table 22. Composition of Profiles from Confirmatory 6-Profile Models in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size[1]**	**Profile Proportions[1]**
All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	112.95	.07
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	627.91	.37
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	608.16	.35
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	196.03	.11
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	145.26	.08
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	23.69	.01
Freed Intercept of Community WB in P1						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.86**	136.61	.08
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	630.34	.37
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	607.403	.35
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	185.07	.11
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	129.85	.08.
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	24.72	01
Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P2						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.86**	138.42	.08
2. Contented	**3.38**	3.77	4.04	3.63	617.40	.36
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	641.79	.37
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	162.26	.09
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	127.89	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	26.25	.02

Table 22 (cont.)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size**[1]	**Profile Proportions**[1]
Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.84**	138.00	.08
2. Contented	**3.40**	3.77	4.04	3.63	644.52	.38
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.44**	612.83	.36
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	160.50	.09
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	125.9	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	32.24	.02
Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.77**	122.57	.07
2. Contented	**3.41**	3.77	4.04	3.63	634.81	.37
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.45**	614.65	.36
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	159.20	.09
5. Financially insecure	**3.52**	3.83	2.29	3.66	150.24	.09
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	32.52	.02
Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P3[2]						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	**2.77**	122.47	.07
2. Contented	**3.40**	3.77	4.04	3.63	604.80	.35
3. Highly contented	**4.35**	4.52	4.46	**4.43**	642.69	.37
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	159.97	.09
5. Financially insecure	**3.52**	3.83	2.29	3.66	150.93	.09
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	33.13	.02

Table 22 (cont.)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size[1]**	**Profile Proportions[1]**
<u>All intercepts freed[3]</u>						
1. Discontented	**2.55**	**2.72**	**1.75**	**2.75**	114.20	.07
2. Contented	**3.56**	**3.95**	**4.02**	**3.79**	648.01	.38
3. Highly contented	**4.44**	**4.68**	**4.53**	**4.50**	522.27	.30
4. Financial-dominant	**2.79**	**2.89**	**3.44**	**3.20**	255.73	.15
5. Financially insecure	**3.64**	**3.94**	**2.28**	**3.78**	116.35	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	**3.33**	**3.84**	**3.42**	**2.15**	57.44	.03

Notes. *N* = 1,714. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. New intercept values due to intercepts being freed are in boldface. [1]Profile counts and proportions for the latent profiles are based on the estimated models. [2]These profiles are plotted in Figure 14. [3]These profiles are plotted in Figure 15.

Table 23. Intercept Changes from Fixed Model (Based on Sample 1 Values) to Free Models in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)

	Freed Intercepts (Incrementally Based on Modification Indices)				
	1. P1 Community WB	2. P2 Purpose WB	3. P3 Community WB	4. P5 Purpose WB	5. P3 Purpose WB
Sample 1 Values	2.27	3.64	4.21	3.89	4.64
Estimated Sample 3 Intercepts					
1	2.86				
1, 2	2.86	3.38			
1, 2, 3	2.84	3.40	4.44		
1, 2, 3, 4	2.77	3.41	4.45	3.52	
1, 2, 3, 4, 5	2.77	3.40	4.43	3.52	4.35
Change in Profile Interpretation	No	No	No	No	No

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being.

Table 24. Average Latent Profile Probabilities for Most Likely Profile Membership (Row) by Latent Profile (Column) for 6-Profile Confirmatory Model in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Discontented	**.87**	.00	.00	.06	.07	.00
2. Contented	.00	**.85**	.08	.04	.02	.01
3. Highly contented	.00	.08	**.92**	.00	.00	.00
4. Financial-dominant	.04	.11	.00	**.84**	.01	.01
5. Financially insecure	.06	.07	.01	.03	**.83**	.01
6. Lack of community well-being	.00	.11	.01	.06	.02	**.81**

Note. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Five intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 21).

Table 25. Model Comparisons for Confirmatory Latent Profile Analyses in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)

Model Description	# of Freed Intercepts	*-2LL*	Δ-*2LL*	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy
1. All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values	0	-12752.82	/	12770.82	12819.13	12790.54	.82
2. Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5	1	-12698.82	54.00	12718.82	12772.49	12740.72	.82
3. Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3	2	-12513.58	185.24	12535.59	12594.62	12559.68	.83
4. Freed Intercept of Social WB in P4	**3**	**-12467.38**	**46.20**	**12491.37**	**12555.77**	**12517.65**	**.83**
All intercepts freed	24	-12108.20	359.18 (17.10)[1]	12174.20	12351.32	12246.48	.84

Notes. N = 1,583. Intercepts were freed incrementally based on the largest modification indices in each model. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. LL = Log-Likelihood. AIC = Akaike information criterion. BIC = Bayesian information criterion. aBIC = sample-size-adjusted BIC. The final confirmatory profile model selected for subsequent analyses is in boldface. [1]Average change in -2 Log-Likelihood per degree of freedom/per freed intercept.

Table 26. Composition of Profiles from Confirmatory 6-Profile Models in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size**[1]	**Profile Proportions**[1]
All intercepts fixed at Sample 1 values						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	99.71	.06
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	557.34	.35
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	628.34	.40
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	199.67	.13
5. Financially insecure	3.89	3.83	2.29	3.66	84.52	.05
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	13.41	.01
Freed Intercept of Purpose WB in P5						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	85.67	.05
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	545.66	.34
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	4.21	634.79	.40
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	188.29	.12
5. Financially insecure	**3.35**	3.83	2.29	3.66	111.02	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	17.57	.01
Freed Intercept of Community WB in P3						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	81.94	.05
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	573.44	.36
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.51**	606.11	.38
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	2.63	3.57	2.93	181.00	.11
5. Financially insecure	**3.32**	3.83	2.29	3.66	113.81	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	26.69	.02

Table 26 (cont.)

	Purpose	**Social**	**Financial**	**Community**	**Profile Size[1]**	**Profile Proportions[1]**
Freed Intercept of Social WB in P4[2]						
1. Discontented	2.55	2.70	1.88	2.27	83.36	.05
2. Contented	3.64	3.77	4.04	3.63	549.47	.35
3. Highly contented	4.46	4.52	4.46	**4.51**	606.31	.38
4. Financial-dominant	2.65	**2.97**	3.57	2.93	218.75	.14
5. Financially insecure	**3.39**	3.83	2.29	3.66	107.22	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	3.79	4.04	3.84	2.12	17.90	.01
All intercepts freed[3]						
1. Discontented	**2.20**	**2.42**	**1.67**	**2.01**	47.07	.03
2. Contented	**3.76**	**4.07**	**4.05**	**3.95**	644.63	.41
3. Highly contented	**4.63**	**4.77**	**4.60**	**4.65**	424.45	.27
4. Financial-dominant	**2.83**	**3.14**	**3.64**	**3.35**	277.55	.18
5. Financially insecure	**3.06**	**3.15**	**2.09**	**3.43**	116.32	.07
6. Lack of community well-being	**3.03**	**3.31**	**3.63**	**2.09**	72.99	.05

Notes. *N* = 1,583. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being. New intercept values due to intercepts being freed are in boldface. [1]Profile counts and proportions for the latent profiles are based on the estimated models. [2]These profiles are plotted in Figure 16. [3]These profiles are plotted in Figure 17.

Table 27. Intercept Changes from Fixed Model (Based on Sample 1 Values) to Free Models in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)

	Freed Intercepts (Incrementally Based on Modification Indices)		
	1. P5 Purpose WB	2. P3 Community WB	3. P4 Social WB
Sample 1 Values	3.89	4.21	2.63
Estimated Sample 3 Intercepts			
1	3.35		
1, 2	3.32	4.51	
1, 2, 3	3.39	4.51	2.97
Change in Profile Interpretation	No	No	No

Notes. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. WB = Well-Being.

Table 28. Average Latent Profile Probabilities for Most Likely Profile Membership (Row) by Latent Profile (Column) for 6-Profile Confirmatory Model in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Discontented	**.91**	.00	.00	.05	.05	.00
2. Contented	.00	**.83**	.09	.05	.02	.01
3. Highly contented	.00	.09	**.92**	.00	.00	.00
4. Financial-dominant	.03	.10	.00	**.84**	.02	.02
5. Financially insecure	.04	.05	.01	.04	**.86**	.00
6. Lack of community well-being	.02	.09	.00	.12	.01	**.78**

Note. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Three intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 25).

Table 29a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 3,462)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.85			Average PH Perceptions: 3.67			High PH Perceptions: 4.49		
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.14**	8.50	-4.07	2.03	7.61	.88	3.78	43.98	.98	5.54	254.32	1.00
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.73**	113.30	-13.86	-.38	.68	.41	3.50	33.09	.97	7.38	1599.91	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.51**	1.67	-.83	.62	1.87	.65	1.04	2.83	.74	1.46	4.31	.81
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.15**	8.58	-5.66	.47	1.60	.61	2.23	9.30	.90	3.99	54.24	.98
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.65**	5.21	-5.12	-.42	.66	.40	.94	2.55	.72	2.29	9.86	.91
Disease Burden (*N* = 3,464)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.11			High Disease Burden: 5.37•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.35**	.70	2.71	2.71	15.03	.94	2.32	1.19	.91	.83	2.29	.70
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.62**	.54	3.2	3.20	24.53	.96	2.51	12.33	.92	-.13	.88	.47
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.20**	.82	.82	.82	2.27	.69	.60	1.82	.65	-.25	.78	.44
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.24**	.79	1.03	1.03	2.80	.74	.76	2.15	.68	-.26	.77	.44
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.36**	.70	.11	.11	1.12	.53	-.29	.75	.43	-1.82	.16	.14
Tobacco Use (*N* = 3,464)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tobacco Use: .10			High Tobacco Use: 1.42•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.43**	.65	2.19	2.19	8.94	.90	2.15	8.56	.90	1.58	4.85	.83
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.82**	.44	2.46	2.46	11.70	.92	2.38	1.78	.92	1.30	3.65	.79
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.32	.73	.50	.50	1.65	.62	.47	1.60	.61	.05	1.05	.51
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.33	.72	.64	.64	1.90	.65	.61	1.83	.65	.17	1.19	.54
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.40	.67	-.42	-.42	.66	.40	-.46	.63	.39	-.99	.37	.27
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 3,446)				Low Exercise Frequency: 1.04			Average Exercise Frequency: 3.19			High Exercise Frequency: 5.34		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.29**	1.34	1.51	1.81	6.12	.86	2.44	11.42	.92	3.06	21.30	.96
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.60**	1.82	.70	1.32	3.76	.79	2.61	13.65	.93	3.90	49.60	.98
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.18*	1.20	.09	.28	1.32	.57	.66	1.94	.66	1.05	2.86	.74
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.33**	1.39	-.16	.18	1.20	.55	.89	2.44	.71	1.60	4.96	.83
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	1.05	-.58	-.53	.59	.37	-.42	.66	.40	-.31	.73	.42
Body Mass Index (*N* = 3,464)				Low BMI: 20.86			Average BMI: 27.35			High BMI: 33.84		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.07**	.93	4.12	2.66	14.29	.93	2.21	9.07	.90	1.75	5.76	.85
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.11**	.90	5.56	3.27	26.19	.96	2.55	12.83	.93	1.84	6.28	.86
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03*	.97	1.25	.62	1.87	.65	.43	1.54	.61	.23	1.26	.56
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.03	.97	1.39	.76	2.15	.68	.57	1.77	.64	.37	1.45	.59
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.01	1.01	-.86	-.65	.52	.34	-.59	.56	.36	-.52	.59	.37

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed.

Table 29b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	Disease Burden	Tobacco Use	Exercise Frequency	Body Mass Index
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.60**	-.27**	-.39**	.31**	-.05**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.63**	.15**	.11	-.10	.04**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	.11*	.09	.05	.04**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.48	-.01	.03	-.23*	.08**
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-4.22**	.42**	.50**	-.42**	.09**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-2.59**	.37**	.48**	-.27**	.09**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-3.08**	.25*	.41	-.55**	.13**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.64**	-.05	-.01	.15*	.00
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.14**	-.17	-.08	-.13	.04*
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.49	-.12	-.07	-.28*	.04*

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 30a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 3,513)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.90			Average PH Perceptions: 3.72			High PH Perceptions: 4.54		
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.58**	13.20	-4.98	2.50	12.21	.92	4.62	101.25	.99	6.73	839.83	1.00
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	5.69**	295.89	-17.45	-.95	.39	.28	3.72	41.13	.98	8.38	437.36	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.73**	2.08	-.65	1.47	4.34	.81	2.07	7.89	.89	2.66	14.36	.93
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.92**	6.82	-4.69	.88	2.41	.71	2.45	11.62	.92	4.03	56.08	.98
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.71**	15.03	-8.46	-.60	.55	.35	1.62	5.06	.83	3.84	46.68	.98
Disease Burden (*N* = 3,516)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.00			High Disease Burden: 5.05•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.47**	.63	3.38	3.38	29.37	.97	2.91	18.36	.95	1.01	2.74	.73
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.71**	.49	3.53	3.53	34.12	.97	2.82	16.78	.94	-.06	.95	.49
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.25**	.78	1.68	1.68	5.37	.84	1.43	4.18	.81	.42	1.52	.60
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.20**	.82	1.14	1.14	3.13	.76	.94	2.56	.72	.13	1.14	.53
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.32**	.73	.26	.26	1.30	.56	-.06	.94	.49	-1.36	.26	.20
Tobacco Use (*N* = 3,516)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tobacco Use: .08			High Tobacco Use: 1.25•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.50**	.61	2.72	2.72	15.18	.94	2.68	14.59	.94	2.10	8.13	.89
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.74**	.48	2.68	2.68	14.59	.94	2.62	13.75	.93	1.76	5.78	.85
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.23	.79	1.26	1.26	3.53	.78	1.24	3.46	.78	.97	2.64	.73
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.13	.88	.78	.78	2.18	.69	.77	2.16	.68	.62	1.85	.65
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.05	.95	-.28	-.28	.76	.43	-.28	.75	.43	-.34	.71	.42
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 3,503)				Low Exercise Frequency: 1.00			Average Exercise Frequency: 3.22			High Exercise Frequency: 5.44		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.35**	1.42	1.93	2.28	9.78	.91	3.06	21.26	.96	3.83	46.25	.98
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.64**	1.90	.84	1.48	4.39	.81	2.90	18.19	.95	4.32	75.31	.99
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.15	1.16	.96	1.11	3.03	.75	1.44	4.23	.81	1.78	5.91	.86
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.28**	1.32	.20	.48	1.62	.62	1.10	3.01	.75	1.72	5.60	.85
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.29**	1.34	-.88	-.59	.55	.36	.05	1.06	.51	.70	2.01	.67
Body Mass Index (*N* = 3,514)				Low BMI: 20.88			Average BMI: 27.41			High BMI: 33.94		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.05**	.95	4.21	3.17	23.71	.96	2.84	17.11	.94	2.51	12.34	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.10**	.90	5.31	3.22	25.08	.96	2.57	13.05	.93	1.92	6.79	.87
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	2.03	1.40	4.07	.80	1.21	3.35	.77	1.01	2.75	.73
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.03	.97	1.57	.94	2.57	.72	.75	2.11	.68	.55	1.74	.63
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.04	.96	.75	-.09	.92	.48	-.35	.71	.41	-.61	.54	.35

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed.

Table 30b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	Disease Burden	Tobacco Use	Exercise Frequency	Body Mass Index
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.11**	-.24**	-.24	.29**	-.04**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.85**	.22**	.27	-.20**	.03*
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.66**	.27**	.37*	-.07	.03*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.13	.15	.45	-.06	.02
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-4.95**	.47**	.51**	-.49**	.07**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-3.76**	.51**	.60**	-.36**	.07**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-2.97**	.40**	.69**	-.35**	.06*
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.19**	.05	.10	.14*	.00
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.98**	-.07	.18	.14	-.01
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.79*	-.12	.09	.01	-.01

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 31a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 1,711)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.76			Average PH Perceptions: 3.60			High PH Perceptions: 4.44		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.85**	6.36	-3.86	1.25	3.48	.78	2.80	16.44	.94	4.35	77.79	.99
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	5.17**	175.91	-16.66	-2.39	.09	.08	1.95	7.04	.88	6.29	541.75	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.46*	1.58	-.95	.32	1.38	.58	.71	2.03	.67	1.09	2.98	.75
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.11**	8.25	-6.18	-.36	.70	.41	1.42	4.12	.80	3.19	24.25	.96
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.13**	8.41	-7.75	-1.87	.15	.13	-.08	.92	.48	1.71	5.51	.85
Disease Burden (*N* = 1,714)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.26			High Disease Burden: 5.46•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.30**	.74	2.05	2.05	7.77	.89	1.67	5.32	.84	.41	1.51	.60
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.38**	.68	2.19	2.19	8.94	.90	1.71	5.54	.85	.12	1.12	.53
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.13	.88	.49	.49	1.63	.62	.33	1.39	.58	-.22	.80	.45
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.05	.95	.30	.30	1.35	.57	.24	1.27	.56	.03	1.03	.51
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.14	.87	-1.08	-1.08	.34	.25	-1.26	.28	.22	-1.84	.16	.14
Tobacco Use (*N* = 1,714)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tabocco Use: .34			High Tobacco Use: 2.47•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.35*	.70	1.76	1.76	5.81	.85	1.64	5.16	.84	.90	2.45	.71
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.63**	.53	1.90	1.90	6.69	.87	1.69	5.40	.84	.34	1.41	.59
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.13	.88	.34	.34	1.40	.58	.30	1.34	.57	.02	1.02	.50
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.32	.73	.36	.36	1.43	.59	.25	1.29	.56	-.43	.65	.39
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.57	.57	-1.08	-1.08	.34	.25	-1.27	.28	.22	-2.49	.08	.08
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 1,691)				Low Exercise Frequency: .79			Average Exercise Frequency: 3.15			High Exercise Frequency: 5.51		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.10	1.11	1.35	1.43	4.17	.81	1.67	5.29	.84	1.90	6.69	.87
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.42**	1.52	.33	.66	1.94	.66	1.65	5.22	.84	2.64	14.07	.93
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.04	1.04	.20	.23	1.26	.56	.33	1.39	.58	.42	1.52	.60
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.17*	1.19	-.20	-.07	.94	.48	.34	1.40	.58	.74	2.09	.68
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.18	1.20	-1.73	-1.59	.20	.17	-1.16	.31	.24	-.74	.48	.32
Body Mass Index (*N* = 1,714)				Low BMI: 23.97			Average BMI: 30.13			High BMI: 36.29		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.04**	.96	2.97	2.01	7.47	.88	1.76	5.84	.85	1.52	4.56	.82
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.08**	.92	4.06	2.14	8.52	.89	1.65	5.20	.84	1.16	3.18	.76
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	1.24	.52	1.68	.63	.34	1.40	.58	.15	1.16	.54
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.01	.99	.56	.32	1.38	.58	.26	1.30	.56	.20	1.22	.55
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.04	.96	-.07	-1.03	.36	.26	-1.28	.28	.22	-1.52	.22	.18

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed.

Table 31b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	**Disease Burden**	**Tobacco Use**	**Exercise Frequency**	**Body Mass Index**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.33**	-.08	-.29**	.32**	-.04**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.38**	.17*	.22	-.06	.01
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.27	.25**	.03	.07	.03
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.28	.17	-.23	.08	.00
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-4.71**	.25**	.51**	-.39**	.05**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-3.06**	.33**	.32*	-.25**	.07**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-3.05**	.24	.06	-.25*	.04
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.65**	.08	-.19	.13*	.02
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.66*	-.01	-.45	.14	-.01
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.01	-.09	-.26	.01	-.03

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 32a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 1,575)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.66			Average PH Perceptions: 3.54			High PH Perceptions: 4.42		
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.75**	15.64	-5.88	1.44	4.20	.81	3.86	47.23	.98	6.28	531.13	1.00
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	6.16**	473.43	-18.99	-2.60	.07	.07	2.82	16.72	.94	8.24	3778.94	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.98**	2.66	-1.47	1.14	3.12	.76	2.00	7.38	.88	2.86	17.49	.95
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.09**	8.08	-5.45	.11	1.12	.53	1.95	7.02	.88	3.79	44.16	.98
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.40**	29.96	-11.69	-2.65	.07	.07	.35	1.41	.59	3.34	28.16	.97
Disease Burden (*N* = 1,583)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.26			High Disease Burden: 5.76•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.30**	.74	2.37	2.37	10.70	.91	1.99	7.33	.88	.64	1.90	.66
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.53**	.59	2.72	2.72	15.18	.94	2.05	7.79	.89	-.33	.72	.42
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.24**	.79	1.38	1.38	3.97	.80	1.08	2.94	.75	.00	1.00	.50
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.04	1.04	.17	.17	1.19	.54	.22	1.25	.55	.40	1.49	.60
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.06	.94	-1.42	-1.42	.24	.19	-1.50	.22	.18	-1.77	.17	.15
Tobacco Use (*N* = 1,583)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tabocco Use: .29			High Tobacco Use: 2.33•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.35*	.70	2.04	2.04	7.69	.88	1.94	6.95	.87	1.22	3.40	.77
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.65**	.52	2.22	2.22	9.21	.90	2.03	7.63	.88	.71	2.02	.67
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.32	.73	1.11	1.11	3.03	.75	1.02	2.77	.73	.36	1.44	.59
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.50*	.61	.45	.45	1.57	.61	.31	1.36	.58	-.72	.49	.33
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.43	.65	-1.36	-1.36	.26	.20	-1.48	.23	.18	-2.36	.09	.09
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 1,555)				Low Exercise Frequency: .68			Average Exercise Frequency: 2.99			High Exercise Frequency: 5.30		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.28**	1.32	1.36	1.55	4.71	.82	2.20	9.00	.90	2.84	17.18	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.58**	1.79	.48	.87	2.40	.71	2.21	9.15	.90	3.55	34.95	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.21	1.23	.60	.74	2.10	.68	1.23	3.41	.77	1.71	5.55	.85
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.31*	1.36	-.36	-.15	.86	.46	.57	1.76	.64	1.28	3.61	.78
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.49*	1.63	-2.67	-2.34	.10	.09	-1.20	.30	.23	-.07	.93	.48
Body Mass Index (*N* = 1,583)				Low BMI: 23.90			Average BMI: 30.81			High BMI: 37.72		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.06**	.94	3.83	2.40	10.98	.92	1.98	7.25	.88	1.57	4.79	.83
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.10**	.90	5.06	2.67	14.44	.94	1.98	7.24	.88	1.29	3.63	.78
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.02	.98	1.75	1.27	3.57	.78	1.13	3.11	.76	1.00	2.71	.73
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	.75	.27	1.31	.57	.13	1.14	.53	.00	1.00	.50
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.03	.97	-.47	-1.19	.31	.23	-1.39	.25	.20	-1.60	.20	.17

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed.

Table 32b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	Disease Burden	Tobacco Use	Exercise Frequency	Body Mass Index
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.40**	-.23**	-.29*	.30**	-.04**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.78**	.05	.03	-.08	.04*
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.67*	.33**	-.15	.03	.05**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.65	.23	-.08	.21	.03
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-5.18**	.28**	.33*	-.38**	.08**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-4.07**	.56**	.15	-.27**	.08**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-2.76*	.46*	.22	-.09	.07
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.11**	.28**	-.18	.10	.01
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.42	.18	-.11	.28	-.01
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.31	-.10	.07	.18	-.02

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 33a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 2,471)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.85			Average PH Perceptions: 3.67			High PH Perceptions: 4.49		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.62**	5.05	-1.96	2.66	14.25	.93	3.99	53.81	.98	5.31	203.12	1.00
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.21**	24.78	-8.04	1.11	3.03	.75	3.74	42.13	.98	6.37	585.75	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.68*	1.97	-.49	1.45	4.25	.81	2.01	7.43	.88	2.56	12.98	.93
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.94**	2.56	-1.89	.79	2.20	.69	1.56	4.76	.83	2.33	1.28	.91
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.43**	4.18	-4.43	-.35	.70	.41	.82	2.27	.69	1.99	7.32	.88
Disease Burden (*N* = 2,475)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.11			High Disease Burden: 5.37•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.53**	.59	3.80	3.80	44.70	.98	3.21	24.82	.96	.95	2.60	.72
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.68**	.51	4.03	4.03	56.26	.98	3.28	26.45	.96	.38	1.46	.59
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.26**	.77	1.92	1.92	6.82	.87	1.63	5.11	.84	.52	1.69	.63
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.16	.85	1.14	1.14	3.13	.76	.96	2.62	.72	.28	1.32	.57
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.48**	.62	.66	.66	1.93	.66	.13	1.14	.53	-1.92	.15	.13
Tobacco Use (*N* = 2,475)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tobacco Use: .10			High Tobacco Use: 1.42•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.32	.73	2.96	2.96	19.30	.95	2.93	18.69	.95	2.51	12.25	.92
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.61*	.54	3.07	3.07	21.54	.96	3.01	2.27	.95	2.20	9.06	.90
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	1.38	1.38	3.97	.80	1.38	3.98	.80	1.39	4.03	.80
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.21	1.23	.74	.74	2.10	.68	.76	2.14	.68	1.04	2.82	.74
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-1.04	.35	-.10	-.10	.90	.48	-.20	.82	.45	-1.58	.21	.17
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 2,461)				Low Exercise Frequency: 1.04			Average Exercise Frequency: 3.19			High Exercise Frequency: 5.34		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.20*	1.22	2.40	2.61	13.57	.93	3.04	2.86	.95	3.47	32.07	.97
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.44**	1.55	1.70	2.16	8.65	.90	3.10	22.28	.96	4.05	57.37	.98
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.04	1.04	1.28	1.32	3.75	.79	1.41	4.09	.80	1.49	4.45	.82
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	1.01	.74	.75	2.12	.68	.77	2.16	.68	.79	2.21	.69
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.07	1.07	-.33	-.26	.77	.44	-.11	.90	.47	.04	1.04	.51
Body Mass Index (*N* = 2,475)				Low BMI: 20.86			Average BMI: 27.35			High BMI: 33.84		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.05**	.95	4.45	3.41	3.17	.97	3.08	21.81	.96	2.76	15.77	.94
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.09**	.91	5.63	3.75	42.63	.98	3.17	23.77	.96	2.58	13.26	.93
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.04	.96	2.43	1.60	4.93	.83	1.34	3.80	.79	1.08	2.93	.75
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.001	1.00	.80	.78	2.18	.69	.77	2.17	.68	.77	2.15	.68
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.02	.98	.28	-.14	.87	.47	-.27	.77	.43	-.40	.67	.40

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed.

Table 33b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	Disease Burden	Tobacco Use	Exercise Frequency	Body Mass Index
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	1.59**	-.16**	-.29	.23**	-.04**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.94**	.27**	.32	-.17**	.02
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.68**	.37**	.53**	-.20*	.05**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.19	.05	-.72	-.14	.04
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-2.54**	.42**	.61**	-.40**	.06**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-2.27**	.52**	.82**	-.43**	.09**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-1.78**	.20	-.43	-.37**	.08**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.26	.10	.20	-.03	.04*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.76*	-.22	-1.04	.03	.02
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.49	-.32*	-1.24	.06	-.02

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 34a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor[1]:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor[2]:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Physical Health Perceptions (*N* = 767)				Low PH Perceptions: 2.76			Average PH Perceptions: 3.60			High PH Perceptions: 4.44		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.57**	4.81	-2.51	1.82	6.19	.86	3.14	23.15	.96	4.46	86.56	.99
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.52**	33.78	-9.63	.09	1.09	.52	3.04	20.95	.95	6.00	402.94	1.00
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.82*	2.27	-1.32	.94	2.57	.72	1.63	5.11	.84	2.32	10.18	.91
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.33**	3.78	-3.48	.19	1.21	.55	1.31	3.70	.79	2.43	11.30	.92
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-bein	1.94**	6.96	-7.43	-2.08	.13	.11	-.45	.64	.39	1.18	3.27	.77
Disease Burden (*N* = 769)				Low Disease Burden: 0†			Average Disease Burden: 1.26			High Disease Burden: 5.46•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.16	.85	2.34	2.34	10.38	.91	2.14	8.49	.89	1.47	4.33	.81
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.35**	.70	2.81	2.81	16.61	.94	2.37	10.69	.91	.90	2.46	.71
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.15	.86	1.18	1.18	3.25	.76	.99	2.69	.73	.36	1.43	.59
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.21	1.23	-.10	-.10	.90	.48	.16	1.18	.54	1.05	2.85	.74
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-bein	-.40	.67	-1.06	-1.06	.35	.26	-1.56	.21	.17	-3.24	.04	.04
Tobacco Use (*N* = 769)				Low Tobacco Use: 0†			Average Tabocco Use: .34			High Tobacco Use: 2.47•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.04	.96	2.11	2.11	8.25	.89	2.10	8.14	.89	2.01	7.47	.88
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.18	.84	2.41	2.41	11.13	.92	2.35	10.47	.91	1.97	7.14	.88
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.07	1.07	.94	.94	2.56	.72	.96	2.62	.72	1.11	3.04	.75
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.30	.74	.43	.43	1.54	.61	.33	1.39	.58	-.31	.73	.42
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-bein	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Exercise Frequency (*N* = 758)				Low Exercise Frequency: .79			Average Exercise Frequency: 3.15			High Exercise Frequency: 5.51		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.09	1.09	1.86	1.93	6.90	.87	2.14	8.53	.90	2.36	10.55	.91
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.32**	1.38	1.36	1.61	5.02	.83	2.37	10.68	.91	3.12	22.72	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.004	1.00	.91	.91	2.48	.71	.90	2.45	.71	.89	2.43	.71
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.17	1.19	-.10	.03	1.03	.51	.44	1.55	.61	.84	2.31	.70
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-bein	.18	1.20	-2.06	-1.92	.15	.13	-1.49	.22	.18	-1.07	.34	.26
Body Mass Index (*N* = 769)				Low BMI: 23.97			Average BMI: 30.13			High BMI: 36.29		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.08**	.92	4.45	2.53	12.58	.93	2.04	7.69	.88	1.55	4.70	.82
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.11**	.90	5.71	3.07	21.61	.96	2.40	10.98	.92	1.72	5.57	.85
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	1.82	1.10	3.01	.75	.92	2.50	.71	.73	2.08	.68
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.001	1.00	.32	.34	1.41	.59	.35	1.42	.59	.36	1.43	.59
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-bein	-.04	.96	-.33	-1.29	.28	.22	-1.54	.22	.18	-1.78	.17	.14

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. [1]-1 standard deviation (SD), unless indicated otherwise. [2]+1 SD, unless indicated otherwise. †Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. •+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 34b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	PH Perceptions	Disease Burden	Tobacco Use	Exercise Frequency	Body Mass Index
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	1.94**	-.19*	-.15	.23**	-.03
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.75**	.02	.11	-.10	.05*
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.25	.37**	-.27	.08	.08*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.37	-.24	-15.03**	.09	.04
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-2.70**	.20*	.26	-.33**	.08**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-2.29**	.56**	-.12	-.15	.11**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-1.57**	-.05	-14.88**	-.14	.07*
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.51	.36**	-.37	.18	.03
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.12*	-.25	-15.13**	.19	-.01
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.62	-.61	-14.76**	.01	-.04

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. PH = Physical Health.

Table 35. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Physical Well-Being Dimensions in the same model (*N* = 3,444)			
Physical Health Perceptions			
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.19**	8.94	-4.44
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	5.06**	157.59	-17.15
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.24	1.27	.49
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.48**	11.94	-8.69
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.56**	12.94	-1.35
Disease Burden			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.18**	.84	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.19**	.83	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.17*	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.10	.90	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.31*	.73	
Tobacco Use			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.33*	.72	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.42*	.66	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.37	.69	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.19	.83	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.33	.72	
Exercise Frequency			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.07	.93	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.08	.92	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.07	1.07	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.03	.97	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.30	.74	
Body Mass Index			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.10**	1.11	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.08**	1.08	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.12**	1.13	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 36. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Physical WB in the same model (*N* = 3,500)</u>			
<u>Physical Health Perceptions</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.89**	17.99	-7.72
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	6.43**	62.17	-23.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.60*	1.82	-.17
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.30**	9.97	-7.80
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.23**	25.28	-12.21
<u>Disease Burden</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.26**	.77	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.21*	.81	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.18*	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.17	.84	
<u>Tobacco Use</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.26	.77	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.37	.69	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.18	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.19	1.21	
<u>Exercise Frequency</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.06	.94	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.11	.90	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.04	.96	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.14	.87	
<u>Body Mass Index</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.08**	1.08	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.17**	1.19	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07**	1.07	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.09**	1.09	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 37. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Physical WB in the same model (*N* = 1,691)</u>			
<u>Physical Health Perceptions</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.14**	8.50	-5.75
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	5.79**	327.01	-22.82
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.41	1.51	-.12
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.82**	16.78	-11.66
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.34**	10.38	-9.75
<u>Disease Burden</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.09	.91	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.23*	1.26	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.09	.91	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.23*	1.26	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.10	1.11	
<u>Tobacco Use</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.28	.76	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.35	.70	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.12	.89	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.15	.86	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.43	.65	
<u>Exercise Frequency</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.11	.90	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.03	.97	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.04	.96	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.06	.94	
<u>Body Mass Index</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.05*	1.05	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.13**	1.14	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.10**	1.11	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	1.05	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 38. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Physical WB in the same model (*N* = 1,553)			
Physical Health Perceptions			
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.08**	21.76	-8.28
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	7.04**	1141.39	-26.26
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.81**	2.25	-1.02
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.58**	13.20	-9.40
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	4.63**	102.51	-21.05
Disease Burden			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.06	1.06	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.15	1.16	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.11	.90	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.35*	1.42	
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	.41	1.51	
Tobacco Use			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.29	.75	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.46	.63	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.28	.76	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.33	.72	
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	N/A	N/A	
Exercise Frequency			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.03	.97	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.05	.95	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.08	1.08	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	.09	1.09	
Body Mass Index			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.05	1.05	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.14**	1.15	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.004	1.00	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.06	1.06	
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	.14**	1.15	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. WB = Well-Being. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 39. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Physical WB in the same model (*N* = 2,459)			
Physical Health Perceptions			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.70**	5.47	-2.14
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.37**	29.08	-9.58
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.61	1.84	.97
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.36**	3.90	-3.92
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.76**	5.81	-5.92
Disease Burden			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.40**	.67	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.35**	.70	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.22*	.80	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.13	.88	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.40*	.67	
Tobacco Use			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.20	.82	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.28	.76	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.22	1.25	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.71	.49	
Exercise Frequency			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.13	.88	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.09	.91	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.11	.90	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.22	.80	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.25	.78	
Body Mass Index			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.07*	1.07	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.02	.98	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.05	1.05	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.06	1.06	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 40. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Physical Well-Being Dimensions as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Physical WB in the same model (*N* = 758)</u>			
<u>Physical Health Perceptions</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.86**	6.42	-2.52
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.06**	57.97	-11.64
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.98*	2.66	-1.47
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.97**	7.17	-7.77
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.13*	8.41	-8.08
<u>Disease Burden</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.14	1.15	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.18	1.20	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.05	.95	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.51**	1.67	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.07	.93	
<u>Tobacco Use</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.11	1.12	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.20	1.22	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.04	1.04	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	N/A	N/A	
<u>Exercise Frequency</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.16	.85	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.17	.84	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.17	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	1.01	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.13	.88	
<u>Body Mass Index</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.02	.98	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.01	1.01	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.04	1.04	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.03	1.03	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five physical well-being predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 41a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (N = 3,208)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.47**	4.35	-.41	1.06	2.89	.74				2.53	12.55	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.79**	44.26	-4.66	-.87	.42	.30				2.92	18.54	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.08	.92	.64	.56	1.75	.64				.48	1.62	.62
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.82**	6.17	-2.58	-.76	.47	.32				1.06	2.89	.74
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.90*	2.46	-1.97	-1.07	.34	.26				-.17	.84	.46
Perceived Organizational Support (N = 3,221)				Low POS: 6.40†			Average POS: 8.50			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.15**	1.16	1.13	2.09	8.08	.89	2.41	11.08	.92	2.63	13.87	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.49**	1.63	-1.68	1.46	4.29	.81	2.49	12.00	.92	3.22	25.03	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.02	.98	.67	.54	1.72	.63	.50	1.65	.62	.47	1.60	.62
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.24**	1.27	-1.22	.32	1.37	.58	.82	2.27	.69	1.18	3.25	.76
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.14	1.15	-1.45	-.55	.57	.36	-.26	.77	.44	-.05	.95	.49

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** p < .01. * p < .05. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range.

Table 41b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	**Perceived Organizational Support**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.31**	.35**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.55**	-.16**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.34	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.58	-.01
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-3.86**	-.51**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-1.97**	-.25**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-2.89**	-.36**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.89**	.26**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.98*	.16*
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.92	-.11

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 42a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (*N* = 3,287)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.57**	4.81	-.17	1.40	4.06	.80				2.97	19.49	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.15**	63.43	-5.31	-1.16	.31	.24				2.99	19.89	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.12	.89	1.43	1.31	3.71	.79				1.19	3.29	.77
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.07**	2.92	-1.17	-.10	.90	.48				.97	2.64	.73
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.63	1.88	-1.34	-.71	.49	.33				-.08	.92	.48
Perceived Organizational Support (*N* = 3,294)				Low POS: 6.65†			Average POS: 8.62			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.20**	1.22	1.16	2.49	12.06	.92	2.88	17.89	.95	3.16	23.57	.96
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.70**	2.01	-3.43	1.23	3.40	.77	2.60	13.52	.93	3.57	35.52	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.05	1.05	.89	1.22	3.40	.77	1.32	3.75	.79	1.39	4.01	.80
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14*	1.15	-.26	.67	1.96	.66	.95	2.58	.72	1.14	3.13	.76
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.16	1.17	-1.43	-.37	.69	.41	-.05	.95	.49	.17	1.19	.54

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** *p* < .01. * *p* < .05. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range.

Table 42b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	**Perceived Organizational Support**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.58**	.50**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.69**	-.16**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.50	-.07
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.94*	-.05
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-4.28**	-.66**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-3.08**	-.57**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-3.52**	-.55**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.20**	.09
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.76	.11
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.44	.02

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 43a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (*N* = 1,643)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.92**	6.82	-1.86	.06	1.06	.51				1.98	7.24	.88
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.30**	73.70	-6.46	-2.16	.12	.10				2.14	8.50	.89
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.33	1.39	-.25	.08	1.08	.52				.41	1.51	.60
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.93*	2.53	-1.35	-.42	.66	.40				.51	1.67	.62
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.19	3.29	-3.45	-2.26	.10	.09				-1.07	.34	.26
Perceived Organizational Support (*N* = 1,652)				Low POS: 6.22†			Average POS: 8.40			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.17**	1.19	.42	1.48	4.38	.81	1.85	6.35	.86	2.12	8.33	.89
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.71**	2.03	-4.39	.03	1.03	.51	1.57	4.83	.83	2.71	15.03	.94
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	.19	.31	1.37	.58	.36	1.43	.59	.39	1.48	.60
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.23**	1.26	-1.46	-.03	.97	.49	.47	1.60	.62	.84	2.32	.70
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.22	1.25	-2.94	-1.57	.21	.17	-1.09	.34	.25	-.74	.48	.32

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range.

Table 43b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	**Perceived Organizational Support**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.38**	.55**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.59**	-.15**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.99**	.06
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.73	.05
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-3.96**	-.69**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-3.36**	-.48**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-3.11**	-.49**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.60	.21**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.85	.20
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.25	-.01

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 44a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (*N* = 1,451)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.48**	11.94	-2.52	-.04	.96	.49				2.44	11.47	.92
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	5.12**	167.34	-7.69	-2.57	.08	.07				2.55	12.81	.93
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.46	1.58	.25	.71	2.03	.67				1.17	3.22	.76
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.06*	2.89	-1.48	-.42	.66	.40				.64	1.90	.65
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.95	2.59	-3.16	-2.21	.11	.10				-1.26	.28	.22
Perceived Organizational Support (*N* = 1,451)				Low POS: 6.08†			Average POS: 8.34			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.24**	1.27	.23	1.69	5.42	.84	2.23	9.31	.90	2.63	13.87	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.85**	2.34	-5.25	-.08	.92	.48	1.84	6.29	.86	3.25	25.79	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.06	1.06	.56	.92	2.52	.72	1.06	2.89	.74	1.16	3.19	.76
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.16*	1.17	-.81	.16	1.18	.54	.52	1.69	.63	.79	2.20	.69
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.12	1.13	-2.44	-1.71	.18	.15	-1.44	.24	.19	-1.24	.29	.22

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range.

Table 44b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	**Perceived Organizational Support**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.65*	.62**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-2.02**	-.18**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-1.41**	-.08
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-1.53	-.12
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-4.66**	-.79**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-4.06**	-.70**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-4.18**	-.73**
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.60	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.49	.06
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.12	-.04

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 45a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (*N* = 2,309)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.10**	3.00	.87	1.97	7.17	.88				3.07	21.54	.96
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.28**	9.78	-1.35	.93	2.53	.72				3.21	24.78	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	1.27	1.28	3.60	.78				1.29	3.63	.78
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.15	1.16	.48	.63	1.88	.65				.78	2.18	.69
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.61	1.84	-1.24	-.63	.53	.35				-.02	.98	.50
Perceived Organizational Support (*N* = 2,327)				Low POS: 6.40†			Average POS: 8.50			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.01	.99	2.98	2.92	18.47	.95	2.90	18.08	.95	2.88	17.81	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.31**	1.36	.27	2.25	9.53	.90	2.91	18.27	.95	3.37	29.08	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.05	.95	1.77	1.45	4.26	.81	1.35	3.84	.79	1.27	3.56	.78
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.11	.90	1.63	.93	2.52	.72	.70	2.00	.67	.53	1.70	.63
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.32	1.38	-2.98	-.93	.39	.28	-.26	.77	.44	.22	1.25	.55

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range.

Table 45b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	**Perceived Organizational Support**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	1.18**	.32**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.09**	-.04
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.94**	-.11
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.49	.32
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-2.27**	-.36**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-2.13**	-.42**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-1.67**	.01
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14	-.06
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.60	.36
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.46	.42

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 46a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			the average level of predict			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Job Satisfaction (*N* = 743)				Low Job Satisfaction: 1.00						High Job Satisfaction: 2.00		
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.76**	5.81	-1.81	-.05	.95	.49				1.71	5.53	.85
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.71**	15.03	-2.75	-.04	.96	.49				2.67	14.44	.94
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	.90	.89	2.44	.71				.88	2.41	.71
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.18	3.25	-1.75	-.57	.57	.36				.61	1.84	.65
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A				N/A	N/A	N/A
Perceived Organizational Support (*N* = 751)				Low POS: 6.22†			Average POS: 8.40			High POS: 10.00•		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.20**	1.22	.59	1.83	6.26	.86	2.27	9.68	.91	2.59	13.33	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.65**	1.92	-3.17	.87	2.39	.71	2.29	9.87	.91	3.33	27.94	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.10	1.11	.17	.79	2.21	.69	1.01	2.75	.73	1.17	3.22	.76
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.15	1.16	-.78	.15	1.17	.54	.48	1.62	.62	.72	2.05	.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.09	1.09	-2.18	-1.62	.20	.17	-1.42	.24	.19	-1.28	.28	.22

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 46b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Job Satisfaction	Perceived Organizational Support
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.95	.45**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.77**	-.10
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.58	-.05
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	14.63**	-.11
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-2.72**	-.55**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-1.53*	-.50**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	13.68**	-.57
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.19	.05
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	16.40**	-.01
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile		
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	15.21**	-.06

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Table 47. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 3,158)			
Job Satisfaction			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.24**	3.46	-.46
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.47**	32.14	-7.40
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.001	1.00	.75
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.67**	5.31	-3.69
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.80	2.23	-2.38
Perceived Organizational Support			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.07	1.07	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.39**	1.48	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.17*	1.19	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.08	1.08	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 48. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 3,239)			
Job Satisfaction			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.26**	3.53	-.68
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.83**	16.95	-8.09
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.34	.71	1.23
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.77	2.16	-1.42
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.29	1.34	-1.74
Perceived Organizational Support			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.14**	1.15	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.61**	1.84	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.07	1.07	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.11	1.12	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.13	1.14	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 49. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 1,614)			
Job Satisfaction			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.68**	5.37	-2.05
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.53**	92.76	-12.24
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.33	1.39	-.24
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.53	1.70	-2.08
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.78	2.18	-3.99
Perceived Organizational Support			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.09	1.09	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.61**	1.84	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.19*	1.21	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.17	1.19	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 50. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 1,424)			
Job Satisfaction			
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.09**	8.08	-2.76
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.52	1.68	-.05
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.92	2.51	-1.87
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	.85	2.34	-3.33
Perceived Organizational Support			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.13*	1.14	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.78**	2.18	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.09	1.09	
Profile 6 (Lack of community WB)	.04	1.04	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. WB = Well-Being. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 51. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 2,279)			
Job Satisfaction			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.28**	3.60	1.23
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	2.02**	7.54	-2.87
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.22	1.25	1.4
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.69	1.99	.64
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.40	1.49	-3.22
Perceived Organizational Support			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.08	.92	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.23*	1.26	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.06	.94	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.14	.87	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.26	1.30	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 52. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Work-Related Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Work-Related Factors in the same model (*N* = 737)</u>			
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.36*	3.90	-1.44
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	1.79*	5.99	-5.77
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.46	.63	.59
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.89	2.44	-1.90
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	N/A	N/A	N/A
<u>Perceived Organizational Support</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.13	1.14	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.56**	1.75	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.14	1.15	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.09	1.09	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.09	.91	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Both work-related predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 53a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (*N* = 2,780)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.29**	1.34	-.10	1.06	2.89	.74	1.93	6.89	.87	2.80	16.44	.94
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.36**	1.43	-.36	1.08	2.94	.75	2.16	8.67	.90	3.24	25.53	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.17**	1.19	-.80	-.12	.89	.47	.39	1.48	.60	.90	2.46	.71
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.06	.94	1.00	.76	2.14	.68	.58	1.79	.64	.40	1.49	.60
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.01	.99	-.60	-.64	.53	.35	-.67	.51	.34	-.70	.50	.33
Education (*N* = 3,404)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 5			High Education Category: 6		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.39**	1.48	.25	1.03	2.80	.74	2.20	9.03	.90	2.59	13.33	.93
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.46**	1.58	.16	1.08	2.94	.75	2.46	11.70	.92	2.92	18.54	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.31**	1.36	-1.03	-.41	.66	.40	.52	1.68	.63	.83	2.29	.70
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.05	1.05	.37	.47	1.60	.62	.62	1.86	.65	.67	1.95	.66
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.01	.99	-.48	-.50	.61	.38	-.53	.59	.37	-.54	.58	.37
Employment Status (*N* = 3,460)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.18*	.84	2.37	2.01	7.46	.88				2.19	8.94	.90
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.19*	.83	2.62	2.24	9.39	.90				2.43	11.36	.92
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.30	.74	.85	.25	1.28	.56				.55	1.73	.63
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.32*	.73	1.01	.37	1.45	.59				.69	1.99	.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.22	.80	-.20	-.64	.53	.35				-.42	.66	.40
Age (*N* = 3,464)				Low Age: 30.46†			Average Age: 42.77			High Age: 55.08††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.00	1.00	2.17	2.14	8.50	.89	2.13	8.39	.89	2.11	8.29	.89
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.00	1.00	2.18	2.30	9.99	.91	2.35	1.50	.91	2.40	11.03	.92
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.01	1.01	.22	.52	1.69	.63	.65	1.91	.66	.77	2.16	.68
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.03*	.97	1.59	.68	1.97	.66	.31	1.36	.58	-.06	.94	.48
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.01	.99	-.02	-.32	.72	.42	-.45	.64	.39	-.57	.57	.36
Number of Children (*N* = 3,461)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: .94			Many Children: 4.30••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.06	.94	2.17	2.17	8.76	.90	2.11	8.28	.89	1.91	6.77	.87
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.20**	.82	2.54	2.54	12.68	.93	2.35	1.51	.91	1.68	5.37	.84
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.10	.90	.53	.53	1.70	.63	.44	1.55	.61	.10	1.11	.52
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.08	1.08	.48	.48	1.62	.62	.56	1.74	.64	.82	2.28	.70
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.16	.85	-.34	-.34	.71	.42	-.49	.61	.38	-1.03	.36	.26

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = $1,000 to $1,999, 7 = $4,000 to $4,999, 10 = $10,000 to $14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 5 = College graduate, 6 = Post graduate work or degree. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed.

Table 53b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.07*	.06	-.01	.01	-.14**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.13*	-.09	-.12	.01	-.04
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.36**	-.35**	-.13	-.02**	.14*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.30**	-.40**	-.03	-.01	-.10
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.19**	-.15	-.11	.00	.10
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.42**	-.41**	-.13	-.03**	.28**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.37**	-.47**	-.03	-.02	.05
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.23**	-.26**	-.01	-.03**	.18*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.18*	-.32*	.09	-.02	-.06
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.06	-.06	.10	.01	-.24

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home.

Table 54a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (*N* = 2,896)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32**	1.38	.30	1.58	4.85	.83	2.54	12.68	.93	3.50	33.12	.97
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.39**	1.48	-.37	1.19	3.29	.77	2.36	1.59	.91	3.53	34.12	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.17**	1.19	-.08	.60	1.82	.65	1.11	3.03	.75	1.62	5.05	.83
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.01	.99	.83	.79	2.20	.69	.76	2.14	.68	.73	2.08	.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.15	1.16	-1.39	-.79	.45	.31	-.34	.71	.42	.11	1.12	.53
Education (*N* = 3,248)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 5			High Education Category: 6		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32**	1.38	1.16	1.80	6.05	.86	2.76	15.80	.94	3.08	21.76	.96
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.46**	1.58	.40	1.32	3.74	.79	2.70	14.88	.94	3.16	23.57	.96
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.28**	1.32	-.08	.48	1.62	.62	1.32	3.74	.79	1.60	4.95	.83
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.04	.96	.95	.87	2.39	.70	.75	2.12	.68	.71	2.03	.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.17	1.19	-1.09	-.75	.47	.32	-.24	.79	.44	-.07	.93	.48
Employment Status (*N* = 3,285)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.07	.93	2.77	2.63	13.87	.93				2.70	14.88	.94
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.03	1.03	2.62	2.68	14.59	.94				2.65	14.15	.93
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.04	1.04	1.21	1.29	3.63	.78				1.25	3.49	.78
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	1.01	.75	.77	2.16	.68				.76	2.14	.68
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.27	.76	.05	-.49	.61	.38				-.22	.80	.45
Age (*N* = 3,516)				Low Age: 29.48†			Average Age: 41.49			High Age: 53.50††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.002	1.00	2.57	2.63	13.86	.93	2.65	14.20	.93	2.68	14.54	.94
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.01	1.01	2.20	2.49	12.12	.92	2.61	13.67	.93	2.74	15.41	.94
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.001	1.00	1.27	1.24	3.46	.78	1.23	3.42	.77	1.22	3.38	.77
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	1.39	.80	2.23	.69	.56	1.75	.64	.32	1.38	.58
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.04*	.96	1.27	.09	1.10	.52	-.39	.68	.40	-.87	.42	.30
Number of Children (*N* = 3,511)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: .95			Many Children: 4.37••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.17	.84	2.85	2.85	17.29	.95	2.69	14.71	.94	2.11	8.22	.89
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.31**	.73	2.92	2.92	18.54	.95	2.63	13.81	.93	1.57	4.78	.83
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.19	.83	1.44	1.44	4.22	.81	1.26	3.52	.78	.61	1.84	.65
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.06	.94	.84	.84	2.32	.70	.78	2.19	.69	.58	1.78	.64
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.28	.76	.01	.01	1.01	.50	-.26	.77	.44	-1.21	.30	.23

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = \$1,000 to \$1,999, 7 = \$4,000 to \$4,999, 10 = \$10,000 to \$14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 5 = College graduate, 6 = Post graduate work or degree. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed.

Table 54b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.07*	.14**	.10	.01	-.14**
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.15**	-.04	.10	-.003	-.02
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.33**	-.36**	.07	-.02*	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-17*	-.14	-.20	-.04**	-.12
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.22**	-.18*	.01	-.01	.12
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.40**	-.50**	-.03	-.03**	.24**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.24**	-.29*	-.30	-.05**	.02
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.18**	-.32**	-.03	-.02	.13
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.03	-.11	-.31	-.04**	-.09
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.15*	.22	-.28	-.03	-.22

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home.

Table 55a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (*N* = 1,196)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.25**	1.28	-.06	.94	2.56	.72	1.69	5.42	.84	2.44	11.47	.92
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.31**	1.36	-.59	.65	1.92	.66	1.58	4.85	.83	2.51	12.30	.92
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.17**	1.19	-.79	-.11	.90	.47	.40	1.49	.60	.91	2.48	.71
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	1.01	.16	.20	1.22	.55	.23	1.26	.56	.26	1.30	.56
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	1.05	-1.85	-1.65	.19	.16	-1.50	.22	.18	-1.35	.26	.21
Education (*N* = 1,667)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 4			High Education Category: 5		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.21**	1.23	.87	1.29	3.63	.78	1.71	5.53	.85	1.92	6.82	.87
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.08	1.08	1.36	1.52	4.57	.82	1.68	5.37	.84	1.76	5.81	.85
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.11	1.12	-.10	.12	1.13	.53	.34	1.40	.58	.45	1.57	.61
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.20	1.22	-.51	-.11	.90	.47	.29	1.34	.57	.49	1.63	.62
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.35	1.42	-2.60	-1.90	.15	.13	-1.20	.30	.23	-.85	.43	.30
Employment Status (*N* = 1,712)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.03	.97	1.64	1.58	4.85	.83				1.61	5.00	.83
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.19	.83	1.87	1.49	4.44	.82				1.68	5.37	.84
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.23	.79	.52	.06	1.06	.51				.29	1.34	.57
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.46	.63	.70	-.22	.80	.45				.24	1.27	.56
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.36	1.43	-1.72	-1.00	.37	.27				-1.36	.26	.20
Age (*N* = 1,714)				Low Age: 36.60†			Average Age: 47.65			High Age: 58.70††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03*	1.03	.46	1.56	4.75	.83	1.89	6.62	.87	2.22	9.22	.90
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.05**	1.05	-.50	1.33	3.78	.79	1.88	6.57	.87	2.44	11.42	.92
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	-.41	.32	1.38	.58	.54	1.72	.63	.76	2.15	.68
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.01	.99	.50	.13	1.14	.53	.02	1.02	.51	-.09	.92	.48
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.01	1.01	-1.54	-1.17	.31	.24	-1.06	.35	.26	-.95	.39	.28
Number of Children (*N* = 1,713)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: .97			Many Children: 4••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.23*	.79	1.85	1.85	6.36	.86	1.63	5.09	.84	.93	2.53	.72
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.35**	.70	2.01	2.01	7.46	.88	1.67	5.31	.84	.61	1.84	.65
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.10	.90	.39	.39	1.48	.60	.29	1.34	.57	-.01	.99	.50
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.06	1.06	.14	.14	1.15	.53	.20	1.22	.55	.38	1.46	.59
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.52	.59	-.83	-.83	.44	.30	-1.33	.26	.21	-2.91	.05	.05

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = $1,000 to $1,999, 7 = $4,000 to $4,999, 10 = $10,000 to $14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 4 = Some college, 5 = College graduate. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed.

Table 55b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.06	-.13*	-.16	.02**	-.12
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.08	-.10	-.19	-.01	.13
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.24**	-.01	-.42	-.03**	.28**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.19	.15	.39	-.02	-.29
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.14**	.03	-.04	-.03**	.25**
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.30**	.12	-.27	-.05**	.40**
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.26*	.27	.55*	-.04	-.18
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.16**	.09	-.23	-.02	.16
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.11	.25	.58	-.01	-.42
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	.16	.82	.01	-.58

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home.

Table 56a. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (*N* = 1,088)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32**	1.38	-.32	.96	2.61	.72	1.92	6.82	.87	2.88	17.81	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.40**	1.49	-1.00	.60	1.82	.65	1.80	6.05	.86	3.00	20.09	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.17**	1.19	-.32	.36	1.43	.59	.87	2.39	.70	1.38	3.97	.80
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	-.27	.01	1.01	.50	.22	1.25	.55	.43	1.54	.61
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.16	1.17	-2.62	-1.98	.14	.12	-1.50	.22	.18	-1.02	.36	.27
Education (*N* = 1,517)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 4			High Education Category: 5		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.05	1.05	1.68	1.78	5.93	.86	1.88	6.55	.87	1.93	6.89	.87
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.04	1.04	1.81	1.89	6.62	.87	1.97	7.17	.88	2.01	7.46	.88
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	.99	.97	2.64	.73	.95	2.59	.72	.94	2.56	.72
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.16	1.17	-.33	-.01	.99	.50	.31	1.36	.58	.47	1.60	.62
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.41	.66	-.41	-1.23	.29	.23	-2.05	.13	.11	-2.46	.09	.08
Employment Status (*N* = 1,562)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.05	.95	1.97	1.87	6.49	.87				1.92	6.82	.87
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.05	1.05	1.94	2.04	7.69	.88				1.99	7.32	.88
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.12	.89	1.12	.88	2.41	.71				1.00	2.72	.73
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.01	1.01	.26	.28	1.32	.57				.27	1.31	.57
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.37	1.45	-2.05	-1.31	.27	.21				-1.68	.19	.16
Age (*N* = 1,583)				Low Age: 36.13†			Average Age: 47.13			High Age: 58.13††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.04**	1.04	.03	1.48	4.37	.81	1.92	6.79	.87	2.36	10.54	.91
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.05**	1.05	-.42	1.39	4.00	.80	1.94	6.93	.87	2.49	12.02	.92
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.03**	1.03	-.50	.58	1.79	.64	.91	2.49	.71	1.24	3.47	.78
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.04*	1.04	-1.33	.12	1.12	.53	.56	1.74	.64	1.00	2.71	.73
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	1.05	-3.58	-1.77	.17	.15	-1.22	.29	.23	-.67	.51	.34
Number of Children (*N* = 1,576)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: 1			Many Children: 4.42••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.17	.84	2.11	2.11	8.25	.89	1.94	6.96	.87	1.36	3.89	.80
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.32**	.73	2.35	2.35	10.49	.91	2.03	7.61	.88	.94	2.55	.72
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.17	.84	1.19	1.19	3.29	.77	1.02	2.77	.73	.44	1.55	.61
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.07	.93	.37	.37	1.45	.59	.30	1.35	.57	.06	1.06	.52
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.70	.50	-.90	-.90	.41	.29	-1.60	.20	.17	-3.99	.02	.02

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = $1,000 to $1,999, 7 = $4,000 to $4,999, 10 = $10,000 to $14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 4 = Some college, 5 = College graduate. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed.

Table 56b. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.08	-.01	.10	.01	-.15*
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.15*	-.06	-.07	-.01	-.003
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.25**	.11	.06	-.01	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.16	-.46	.42	.004	-.53
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.23**	-.05	-.17	-.02*	.14
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.33**	.12	-.04	-.02	.25*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.24	-.45	.32	-.01	-.38
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.11	.17	.14	.002	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.02	-.40	.49	.01	-.52
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.09	-.57	.35	.01	-.63

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home.

Table 57a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (N = 2,008)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.29**	1.34	.72	1.88	6.55	.87	2.75	15.64	.94	3.62	37.34	.97
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.28**	1.32	.06	1.18	3.25	.76	2.02	7.54	.88	2.86	17.46	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.15*	1.16	.16	.76	2.14	.68	1.21	3.35	.77	1.66	5.26	.84
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.06	.94	1.02	.78	2.18	.69	.60	1.82	.65	.42	1.52	.60
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.12	1.13	-1.15	-.67	.51	.34	-.31	.73	.42	.05	1.05	.51
Education (N = 2,434)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 5			High Education Category: 6		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.22	1.25	1.87	2.31	1.07	.91	2.97	19.49	.95	3.19	24.29	.96
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.36**	1.43	1.23	1.95	7.03	.88	3.03	2.70	.95	3.39	29.67	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.24	1.27	.20	.68	1.97	.66	1.40	4.06	.80	1.64	5.16	.84
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.15	.86	1.47	1.17	3.22	.76	.72	2.05	.67	.57	1.77	.64
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.11	1.12	-.70	-.48	.62	.38	-.15	.86	.46	-.04	.96	.49
Employment Status (N = 2,471)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.08	1.08	2.81	2.97	19.49	.95				2.89	17.99	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.18	1.20	2.77	3.13	22.87	.96				2.95	19.11	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.13	1.14	1.22	1.48	4.39	.81				1.35	3.86	.79
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.06	1.06	.71	.83	2.29	.70				.77	2.16	.68
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.23	.79	.09	-.37	.69	.41				-.14	.87	.47
Age (N = 2,475)				Low Age: 30.46†			Average Age: 42.77			High Age: 55.08††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.01	.99	3.22	2.92	18.46	.95	2.79	16.32	.94	2.67	14.43	.94
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.001	1.00	3.02	2.99	19.88	.95	2.98	19.63	.95	2.96	19.39	.95
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.02	.98	2.11	1.50	4.49	.82	1.25	3.51	.78	1.01	2.74	.73
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	1.55	.94	2.56	.72	.69	2.00	.67	.45	1.57	.61
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.05*	.95	1.71	.19	1.21	.55	-.43	.65	.39	-1.04	.35	.26
Number of Children (N = 2,471)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: .94			Many Children: 4.30••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.003	1.00	2.92	2.92	18.54	.95	2.92	18.49	.95	2.91	18.30	.95
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.12	.89	3.11	3.11	22.42	.96	3.00	2.03	.95	2.59	13.38	.93
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.10	.90	1.46	1.46	4.31	.81	1.37	3.92	.80	1.03	2.80	.74
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.10	1.11	.67	.67	1.95	.66	.76	2.15	.68	1.10	3.00	.75
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.57*	.57	.24	.24	1.27	.56	-.30	.74	.43	-2.21	.11	.10

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = $1,000 to $1,999, 7 = $4,000 to $4,999, 10 = $10,000 to $14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 5 = College graduate, 6 = Post graduate work or degree. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed.

Table 57b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.09**	.15*	.10	.01	-.12*
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.14**	.02	.04	-.01	-.10
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.35**	-.37**	-.03	-.01	.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.17	-.11	-.31	-.04*	-.57**
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.23**	-.12	-.05	-.02*	.02
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.44**	-.51**	-.13	-.02	.22*
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.26**	-.25	-.41	-.05**	-.46*
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.21**	-.39**	-.07	-.001	.20
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.04	-.13	-.36	-.03	-.47*
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.18	.26	-.28	-.03	-.67**

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home.

Table 58a. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profile = Profile 1)

				At low level of predictor:			At the average level of predictor:			At high level of predictor:		
Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.	Logit	Odds	Prob.
Income (*N* = 523)				Low Income Category: 4			Middle Income Category: 7			High Income Category: 10		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.36**	1.43	-.23	1.21	3.35	.77	2.29	9.87	.91	3.37	29.08	.97
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.44**	1.55	-.80	.96	2.61	.72	2.28	9.78	.91	3.60	36.60	.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.20	1.22	-.43	.37	1.45	.59	.97	2.64	.73	1.57	4.81	.83
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.10	1.11	-.27	.13	1.14	.53	.43	1.54	.61	.73	2.08	.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.66*	1.93	-5.96	-3.32	.04	.03	-1.34	.26	.21	.64	1.90	.65
Education (*N* = 750)				Low Education Category: 2			Average Education Category: 4			High Education Category: 5		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.07	1.07	1.83	1.97	7.17	.88	2.11	8.25	.89	2.18	8.85	.90
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.09	.91	2.65	2.47	11.82	.92	2.29	9.87	.91	2.20	9.03	.90
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03	.97	1.02	.96	2.61	.72	.90	2.46	.71	.87	2.39	.70
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.23	1.26	-.61	-.15	.86	.46	.31	1.36	.58	.54	1.72	.63
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.07	1.07	-1.83	-1.69	.18	.16	-1.55	.21	.18	-1.48	.23	.19
Employment Status (*N* = 768)				Part-time						Full-time		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.28	1.32	1.81	2.37	10.70	.91				2.09	8.08	.89
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.28	1.32	2.07	2.63	13.87	.93				2.35	10.49	.91
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A				N/A	N/A	N/A
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.28	1.32	.06	.62	1.86	.65				.34	1.40	.58
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.58	1.79	-2.19	-1.03	.36	.26				-1.61	.20	.17
Age (*N* = 769)				Low Age: 36.60†			Average Age: 47.65			High Age: 58.70††		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.09**	1.09	-1.79	1.50	4.50	.82	2.50	12.16	.92	3.49	32.88	.97
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.11**	1.12	-2.27	1.76	5.79	.85	2.97	19.52	.95	4.19	65.83	.99
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.11**	1.12	-3.60	.43	1.53	.60	1.64	5.16	.84	2.86	17.41	.95
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.11**	1.12	-4.26	-.23	.79	.44	.98	2.67	.73	2.20	9.00	.90
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	.14**	1.15	-7.65	-2.53	.08	.07	-.98	.38	.27	.57	1.76	.64
Number of Children (*N* = 769)				No Children: 0•			Average # of Children: .97			Many Children: 4••		
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.22	.80	2.35	2.35	10.49	.91	2.14	8.47	.89	1.47	4.35	.81
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.32*	.73	2.71	2.71	15.03	.94	2.40	11.02	.92	1.43	4.18	.81
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.22	.80	1.22	1.22	3.39	.77	1.01	2.74	.73	.34	1.40	.58
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.31	.73	.71	.71	2.03	.67	.41	1.51	.60	-.53	.59	.37
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being	-.45	.64	-1.10	-1.10	.33	.25	-1.54	.22	.18	-2.90	.06	.05

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. Each predictor was entered in separate models. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. Prob. = Probability. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = \$1,000 to \$1,999, 7 = \$4,000 to \$4,999, 10 = \$10,000 to \$14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 5 = College graduate, 6 = Post graduate work or degree. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 58b. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Individual Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3; Reference Profiles = Profiles 2 to 6)

	Income	**Education**	**Emp. Status**	**Age**	**# of Children**
Profile 2 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.09	-.16	.001	.02	-.10
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.16	-.10	N/A	01	-.002
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.26**	.17	.01	.02	-.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.30	.004	.31	.05	-.24
Profile 3 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.25**	.06	N/A	-.001	.10
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.34**	.32	.01	.00	.003
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.22	.16	.31	.03	-.13
Profile 4 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.10	.27	N/A	.001	-.10
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.47	.10	N/A	.03	-.23
Profile 5 as the Reference Profile					
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.56	-.16	.30	.03	-.14

Notes. Estimates are in logit form. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Income = Monthly Household Income. Education = Highest level of completed education. Emp. Status = Employment Status. # of Children = Number of children living at home. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 59. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 2,767)</u>			
<u>Income</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32**	1.38	-.09
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.40**	1.49	-.89
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.15*	1.16	-1.16
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.05	.95	1.75
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.03	1.03	-.24
<u>Education</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.25**	1.28	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.32**	1.38	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.24	1.27	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.09	1.09	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.004	1.00	
<u>Employment Status</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.12	.89	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.08	.92	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.18	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.33	.72	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.03	1.03	
<u>Age</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.03**	.97	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.02**	.98	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02*	.98	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.01	.99	
<u>Number of Children</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.11	.90	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.31**	.73	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.07	.93	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14	1.15	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.25	.78	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 60. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 2,699)</u>			
<u>Income</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.39**	1.48	.29
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.47**	1.60	-1.24
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.22**	1.25	-.93
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	1.88
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.29*	1.34	.57
<u>Education</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.11	1.12	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.27*	1.31	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.22	1.25	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.14	.87	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.07	1.07	
<u>Employment Status</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.04	1.04	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.22	1.25	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.20	1.22	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.02	1.02	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.39	.68	
<u>Age</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.02	.98	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.02	.98	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.01	.99	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.07**	.93	
<u>Number of Children</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.30**	.74	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.48**	.62	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.30*	.74	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.05	.95	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.31	.73	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 61. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 1 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 1,190)			
Income			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.23**	1.26	-1.31
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.29**	1.34	-1.97
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.16**	1.17	-.45
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.004	1.00	.13
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.08	1.08	-1.64
Education			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.21*	1.23	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.08	1.08	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.11	1.12	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14	1.15	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.38	1.46	
Employment Status			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.28	.76	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.25	.78	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-1.41	.24	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.32	.73	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.07	.93	
Age			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03*	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.04**	1.04	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.004	1.00	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.03	.97	
Number of Children			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.30**	.74	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.33**	.72	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.11	.90	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.30	.74	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 62. Cross-Sectional Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 2 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 1,075)</u>			
<u>Income</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.33**	1.39	-1.67
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.42**	1.52	-2.55
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.18*	1.20	-1.47
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.07	1.07	-1.67
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.21	1.23	-.92
<u>Education</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.12	1.13	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.09	1.09	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14	1.15	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.26	.77	
<u>Employment Status</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.02	.98	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.14	1.15	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.03	.97	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.05	1.05	
<u>Age</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03*	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.03*	1.03	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	1.02	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.02	1.02	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.01	.99	
<u>Number of Children</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.14	.87	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.33**	.72	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.24	.79	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.09	.91	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.81	.44	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 63. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 2)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 1,998)			
Income			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32**	1.38	1.15
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.41**	1.51	.02
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.18*	1.20	.40
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.06	.94	2.53
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.24	1.27	-.31
Education			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.12	1.13	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.20	1.22	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.18	1.20	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.13	.88	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.27	1.31	
Employment Status			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.03	1.03	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.14	1.15	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.12	1.13	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.30	.74	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.36	.70	
Age			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.03*	.97	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.03*	.97	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.03*	.97	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.02	.98	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.05**	.95	
Number of Children			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.12	.89	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.27*	.76	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.17	.84	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.20	1.22	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.65*	.52	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio.

Table 64. Longitudinal Multinomial Logistic Regressions: Time 1 Demographic Factors as Predictors of Time 2 Profile Membership (Sample 3)

Profile 1 as the Reference Profile	Logit	Odds	Intercept
<u>All Demographic Factors in the same model (*N* = 522)</u>			
<u>Income</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.37**	1.45	-4.00
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.43**	1.54	-5.46
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.17	1.19	16.09
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.10	1.11	-5.74
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.68	1.97	N/A
<u>Education</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.17	1.19	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.13	1.14	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.16	1.17	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.30	1.35	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.16	1.17	
<u>Employment Status</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.08	1.08	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.39	1.48	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	N/A	.00	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.49	1.63	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	N/A	.00	
<u>Age</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.08**	1.08	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.10**	1.11	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.12**	1.13	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.10**	1.11	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.11*	1.12	
<u>Number of Children</u>			
Profile 2 (Contented)	-.20	.82	
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	-.22	.80	
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	-.08	.92	
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	-.23	.79	
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	-.30	.74	

Notes. Profile 1 (Discontented) is the Reference Profile for all parameters. All five demographic predictors were entered into the same model. ** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$. Odds = Odds Ratio. N/A = Values were out of reasonable range possibly due to small group sizes and/or suppression.

Table 65. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 1 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.40)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.47 (.05)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.42 (.02)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.19 (.02)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.73 (.04)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.37 (.04)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.18 (.07)									
Disease Burden (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.25 (.12)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.18 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.82 (.04)	✓	✓	✓		$p = .05$		$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.57 (.10)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.45 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.22 (.16)									
Tobacco Use (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.25 (.04)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.11 (.01)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.06 (.01)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.15 (.03)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.14 (.03)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.13 (.05)									

Table 65 (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (R^2=.10)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.79 (.17)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.77 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.90 (.05)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.28 (.14)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.80 (.13)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.04 (.23)									
Body Mass Index (R^2=.05)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	31.08 (.53)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	27.43 (.18)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	26.11 (.16)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	29.36 (.44)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	29.27 (.39)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	31.38 (.71)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 3,446 to 3,464. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 140 to 142). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 1,230 to 1,234). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,525 to 1,533). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 207 to 209). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 265 to 269). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 79). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 66. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 1 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.43)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.59 (.06)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.38 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.25 (.03)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.83 (.05)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.38 (.05)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.38 (.12)									
Disease Burden (R^2=.03)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.85 (.12)	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.19 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	1.06 (.06)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.49 (.11)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.67 (.11)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.44 (.27)									
Tobacco Use (R^2=.02)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.57 (.06)	✓	✓		✓		✓	$p = .055$		
Profile 2 (Contented)	.36 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.25 (.03)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.48 (.06)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.39 (.06)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.30 (.14)									

Table 66. (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (***R***^{2}**=.10**)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.17 (.20)	✓	✓		✓		✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.68 (.09)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.09 (.09)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.29 (.18)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.81 (.18)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.85 (.43)									
Body Mass Index (***R***^{2}**=.02**)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	32.11 (.55)	✓	✓				✓		✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	30.22 (.25)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	29.20 (.24)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	30.74 (.50)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	31.49 (.50)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	30.44 (1.18)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 1,691 to 1,714. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 124 to 125). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 609 to 622). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 634 to 643). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* = 148). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* = 149). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 27). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 67. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 2 Profiles and Time 2 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.42)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.43 (.06)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.54 (.02)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.30 (.02)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.82 (.03)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.25 (.04)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.47 (.08)									
Disease Burden (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.23 (.13)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	p = .05
Profile 2 (Contented)	.99 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.71 (.04)	✓	✓	✓				p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.45 (.07)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.58 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.30 (.16)									
Tobacco Use (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.20 (.04)	✓	✓					p = .05	✓	p = .055
Profile 2 (Contented)	.08 (.01)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.05 (.01)	✓	✓	✓				p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.13 (.02)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.15 (.03)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.17 (.05)									

Table 67 (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (R^2=.11)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.63 (.21)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.91 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.06 (.06)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.15 (.12)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.55 (.15)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.58 (.25)									
Body Mass Index (R^2=.03)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	30.61 (.64)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	27.63 (.17)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	26.30 (.18)	✓	✓	✓				$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	28.86 (.35)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	28.89 (.45)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	28.52 (.77)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 3,503 to 3,516. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 99 to 101). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 1,443 to 1,445). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,352 to 1,355). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 331 to 335). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 209 to 210). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* ranges from 69 to 70). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 68. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 2 Profiles and Time 2 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.49)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.33 9.07)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.37 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.25 (.03)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.75 (.04)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.07 (.06)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.35 (.17)									
Disease Burden (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.11 (.16)	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.26 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.94 (.06)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.41 (.10)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.18 (.14)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.77 (.40)									
Tobacco Use (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.54 (.08)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.32 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.22 (.03)	✓						$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.35 (.05)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.28 (.07)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.31 (.19)									

Table 68 (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (R^2=.10)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.60 (.25)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.63 (.09)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.88 (.09)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.22 (.15)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	2.53 (.22)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.15 (.61)									
Body Mass Index (R^2=.04)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	34.10 (.76)	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	30.78 (.29)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	29.44 (.28)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	32.48 (.46)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	32.98 (.67)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	32.06 (1.88)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 1,555 to 1,583. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 78 to 80). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 559 to 565). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 592 to 604). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 213 to 218). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 100 to 103). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 13). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 69. Longitudinal ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 2 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.23)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.69 (.08)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.56 (.02)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.15 (.02)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	3.23 (.06)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.49 (.05)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.33 (.10)									

Disease Burden (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.34 (.15)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.03 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.80 (.04)	✓	✓	✓				$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.47 (.11)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.44 (.10)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.20 (.18)									

Tobacco Use (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.20 (.05)	✓	✓							
Profile 2 (Contented)	.09 (.01)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.07 (.01)			✓				$p < .05$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.11 (.03)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.13 (.03)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.20 (.06)									

Table 69 (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.85 (.24)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.95 (.07)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.86 (.06)	✓	✓	✓			✓	$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.71 (.18)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.07 (.16)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	2.14 (.30)									
Body Mass Index (R^2=.05)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	31.76 (.72)	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	27.69 (.22)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	26.43 (.19)	✓	✓	✓		✓	$p = .056$	$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	29.14 (.54)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	29.65 (.49)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	31.63 (.91)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 2,466 to 2,474. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 79 to 80). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 882 to 884). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,143 to 1,144). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 142 to 143). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 170 to 172). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* ranges from 50 to 51). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 70. Longitudinal ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 2 Physical Well-Being Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Physical Health Perceptions (R^2=.30)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.59 (.11)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	3.51 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	4.15 (.04)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.93 (.09)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.35 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.30 (.22)									

Disease Burden (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	2.32 (.20)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	$p = .055$		✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	1.18 (.08)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.96 (.08)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	1.46 (.18)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	1.75 (.17)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	1.27 (.41)									

Tobacco Use (R^2=.02)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.51 (.09)	✓	✓		✓	✓				
Profile 2 (Contented)	.26 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.21 (.04)							$p < .05$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.34 (.08)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.25 (.08)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.00 (.19)									

Table 70 (cont.)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Exercise Frequency (R^2=.11)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.43 (.32)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	2.68 (.13)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	3.88 (.12)	✓	✓		✓			p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	2.12 (.28)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	3.27 (.27)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	3.27 (.65)									
Body Mass Index (R^2=.02)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	32.72 (.94)	✓	✓						p = .05	
Profile 2 (Contented)	30.31 (.38)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	29.90 (.37)	✓	✓					p < .05		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	31.88 (.82)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	32.05 (.81)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	31.20 (1.94)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 756 to 770. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 44 to 47). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 272 to 280). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 306 to 308). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 60 to 61). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* = 63). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 11). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 71. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 1 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (R^2=.11)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	7.74 (.11)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	8.33 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.02 (.03)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	7.81 (.09)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	8.51 (.08)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	8.45 (.14)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (R^2=.02)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.21 (.13)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.36 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.18 (.04)	✓	✓	✓				p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.58 (.10)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.45 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.54 (.17)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	13.21 (.18)		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	13.19 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	12.24 (.05)	✓	✓	✓	p = .05	✓		p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	13.86 (.15)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	13.49 (.13)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	13.21 (.24)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 3,249 to 3,440. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 121 to 138). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 1,157 to 1,223). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,451 to 1,530). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 194 to 206). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 253 to 265). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* ranges from 73 to 78). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 72. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 1 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (R^2=.08)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	8.61 (.10)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Profile 2 (Contented)	8.95 (.05)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.52 (.04)	✓	✓		✓	✓		*p* < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	8.72 (.09)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	9.06 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	9.42 (.22)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (R^2=.004)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.61 (.20)						*p* = .05			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.49 (.09)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.24 (.09)							*n.s.*		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.18 (.19)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.23 (.19)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.27 (.44)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	10.58 (.17)		✓				✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	10.27 (.07)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.50 (.07)	✓	✓	✓				*p* < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	10.91 (.15)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	10.67 (.15)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	10.41 (.35)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 1,589 to 1,707. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 120 to 125). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 606 to 618). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 635 to 640). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 145 to 148). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 145 to 149). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* ranges from 26 to 27). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 73. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 2 Profiles and Time 2 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (R^2=.14)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	7.90 (.12)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	8.44 (.03)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.14 (.03)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	7.73 (.06)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	8.40 (.08)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	8.57 (.14)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.19 (.18)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	.33 (.05)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.24 (.05)		✓					p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.39 (.10)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.64 (.13)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.60 (.21)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	12.85 (.21)		✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	12.84 (.05)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	12.02 (.06)	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	p < .01		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	13.59 (.11)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	13.47 (.14)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	12.61 (.25)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 3,339 to 3,490. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 92 to 99). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 1,377 to 1,436). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,296 to 1,350). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 311 to 330). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 195 to 208). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 67). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 74. Cross-Sectional ANOVA of Time 2 Profiles and Time 2 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (R^2=.12)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	8.57 (.13)	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	9.02 (.05)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.58 (.05)	✓	✓		✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	8.50 (.08)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	9.00 (.11)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	9.09 (.32)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	.78 (.29)		p = .058				✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.51 (.11)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.19 (.10)	✓						$p < .05$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.75 (.17)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.26 (.25)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.27 (.75)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (R^2=.07)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	9.82 (.19)	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	10.27 (.07)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.56 (.07)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	10.66 (.11)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	10.72 (.16)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	10.42 (.47)									

Notes. Total N ranges from 1,489 to 1,558. P1 = Profile 1 (N ranges from 72 to 77). P2 = Profile 2 (N ranges from 530 to 556). P3 = Profile 3 (N ranges from 558 to 596). P4 = Profile 4 (N ranges from 202 to 214). P5 = Profile 5 (N ranges from 97 to 103). P6 = Profile 6 (N ranges from 11 to 12). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at p-value of .05.

Table 75. Longitudinal ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 2 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 2)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	8.12 (.13)	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	8.52 (.04)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.01 (.03)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	8.20 (.10)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	8.53 (.09)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	8.33 (.16)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (R^2=.01)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.04 (.21)	✓	✓	✓					✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	.29 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.30 (.05)		✓		✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.29 (.16)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.80 (.14)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.51 (.26)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (R^2=.06)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	13.98 (.22)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	13.04 (.07)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	12.31 (.06)	✓	✓			✓		$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	13.53 (.17)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	13.26 (.15)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	12.71 (.28)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 2,366 to 2,460. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 72 to 79). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 839 to 879). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 1,103 to 1,141). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* ranges from 134 to 141). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 166 to 171). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* = 49). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 76. Longitudinal ANOVA of Time 1 Profiles and Time 2 Work Productivity Outcome Differences (Sample 3)

Outcomes of Profiles:		**Pairwise Comparisons between Profiles**								
Self-Rated Job Performance (**R^2=.12**)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	8.32 (.15)	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓		
Profile 2 (Contented)	9.04 (.06)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.54 (.06)	✓	✓	✓	✓			$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	8.59 (.13)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	9.07 (.13)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	8.60 (.32)									
Work-Related Absenteeism (**R^2=.02**)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	1.04 (.30)		✓	$p = .05$			✓			
Profile 2 (Contented)	.46 (.12)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	.09 (.12)							$p < .05$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	.26 (.26)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	.56 (.26)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	.20 (.64)									
Work-Related Presenteeism (**R^2=.06**)	**Mean (*SE*)**	**P1 vs. P2**	**P1 vs. P3**	**P1 vs. P4**	**P1 vs. P5**	**P1 vs. P6**	**P2 vs. P3**	**P2 vs. P4**	**P2 vs. P5**	**P2 vs. P6**
Profile 1 (Discontented)	9.60 (.24)			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	
Profile 2 (Contented)	10.06 (.10)	**P3 vs. P4**	**P3 vs. P5**	**P3 vs. P6**	**P4 vs. P5**	**P4 vs. P6**	**P5 vs. P6**	**Omnibus**		
Profile 3 (Highly contented)	9.66 (.09)	✓	✓					$p < .01$		
Profile 4 (Financial-dominant)	10.90 (.20)									
Profile 5 (Financially insecure)	10.66 (.20)									
Profile 6 (Lack of community well-being)	10.46 (.48)									

Notes. Total *N* ranges from 753 to 763. P1 = Profile 1 (*N* ranges from 44 to 45). P2 = Profile 2 (*N* ranges from 270 to 277). P3 = Profile 3 (*N* ranges from 306 to 307). P4 = Profile 4 (*N* = 61). P5 = Profile 5 (*N* ranges from 62 to 63). P6 = Profile 6 (*N* ranges from 10 to 11). ✓ = Pairwise mean differences are significant at *p*-value of .05.

Table 77. Latent Transition Probabilities from Time 1 to Time 2 in Sample 2

		Time 2					
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Time 1	P1 (Discontented)	**.47**	.10	.03	.14	.27	.00
	P2 (Contented)	.00	**.79**	.08	.09	.02	.01
	P3 (Highly contented)	.00	.16	**.83**	.00	.01	.00
	P4 (Financial-dominant)	.02	.20	.05	**.72**	.01	.00
	P5 (Financially insecure)	.02	.25	.12	.03	**.55**	.02
	P6 (Lack of community WB)	.13	.03	.14	.14	.00	**.56**

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being.

Table 78. Sample 2 Profile Counts Based on Most Likely Latent Profile Pattern in Time 1 and Time 2

		Time 2					
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Time 1	P1 (Discontented)	**143**	7	3	11	22	0
	P2 (Contented)	0	**1567**	58	73	14	9
	P3 (Highly contented)	4	124	**1660**	2	4	0
	P4 (Financial-dominant)	3	34	8	**297**	0	0
	P5 (Financially insecure)	3	39	24	2	**275**	2
	P6 (Lack of community WB)	7	1	12	7	0	**92**

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being.

Table 79. Latent Transition Probabilities from Time 1 to Time 2 in Sample 3

		Time 2					
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Time 1	P1 (Discontented)	**.60**	.07	.00	.29	.04	.00
	P2 (Contented)	.02	**.77**	.13	.06	.03	.00
	P3 (Highly contented)	.00	.03	**.93**	.03	.01	.00
	P4 (Financial-dominant)	.03	.13	.05	**.78**	.02	.00
	P5 (Financially insecure)	.00	.32	.11	.04	**.54**	.00
	P6 (Lack of community WB)	.10	.03	.00	.00	.00	**.87**

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being.

Table 80. Sample 3 Profile Counts Based on Most Likely Latent Profile Pattern in Time 1 and Time 2

		Time 2					
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Time 1	P1 (Discontented)	**157**	3	0	12	1	0
	P2 (Contented)	4	**866**	31	8	8	0
	P3 (Highly contented)	0	3	**909**	8	1	0
	P4 (Financial-dominant)	1	7	3	**270**	0	0
	P5 (Financially insecure)	0	18	9	2	**165**	0
	P6 (Lack of community WB)	1	0	0	0	0	**42**

Notes. P1 = Profile 1. P2 = Profile 2. P3 = Profile 3. P4 = Profile 4. P5 = Profile 5. P6 = Profile 6. WB = Well-Being.

Table 81. Physical Well-Being Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 2

	PH Perceptions			**Disease Burden**			**Tobacco Use**			**Exercise Frequency**			**Body Mass Index**		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	2.85[†]	3.67	4.49[††]	.00[•]	1.11	5.37[••]	.00[•]	.10	1.42[••]	1.04[†]	3.19	5.34[††]	20.86[†]	27.35	33.84[††]
P(T1=P1)	.08	.01	.00	.02	.04	.18	.04	.04	.08	.07	.03	.01	.02	.04	.06
P(T1=P2)	.56	.49	.14	.33	.37	.38	.36	.36	.40	.45	.38	.27	.33	.37	.38
P(T1=P3)	.05	.34	.83	.51	.43	.15	.44	.43	.29	.26	.43	.61	.53	.43	.33
P(T1=P4)	.15	.03	.00	.05	.07	.13	.07	.07	.10	.10	.06	.03	.05	.07	.09
P(T1=P5)	.11	.10	.03	.06	.08	.13	.07	.08	.10	.09	.08	.06	.05	.07	.10
P(T1=P6)	.05	.03	.00	.03	.03	.03	.03	.03	.03	.04	.02	.01	.02	.03	.04
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.45**	**.20**	**.03**	**.29**	**.45**	**.47**	**.43**	**.50**	**.44**	**.42**	**.54**	**.55**	**.47**	**.46**	**.43**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.19	.39	.23	.28	.18	.01	.17	.02	.00	.09	.19	.33	.07	.09	.12
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.04	.31	.73	.21	.00	.00	.02	.02	.07	.04	.03	.01	.10	.04	.02
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.06	.01	.00	.07	.12	.18	.16	.19	.10	.16	.12	.08	.11	.13	.15
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.27	.09	.01	.16	.26	.35	.23	.27	.39	.29	.12	.04	.26	.27	.28
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.72**	**.79**	**.81**	**.82**	**.79**	**.59**	**.78**	**.80**	**.82**	**.76**	**.79**	**.80**	**.78**	**.80**	**.79**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.14	.12	.10	.09	.11	.14	.10	.10	.06	.11	.11	.10	.12	.10	.09
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.10	.06	.03	.05	.07	.23	.08	.08	.07	.09	.08	.07	.05	.07	.10
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.03	.01	.00	.01	.02	.02	.01	.02	.04	.03	.01	.00	.01	.02	.02
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.00	.02	.05	.02	.01	.00	.02	.00	.00	.01	.02	.03	.03	.01	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.32	.20	.12	.12	.14	.28	.14	.02	.00	.20	.15	.11	.13	.14	.14
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.66**	**.78**	**.87**	**.87**	**.85**	**.72**	**.85**	**.98**	**.97**	**.78**	**.84**	**.89**	**.85**	**.85**	**.85**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.05	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.25	.24	.15	.39	.22	.01	.24	.23	.11	.24	.24	.23	.20	.22	.23
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.04	.01	.00	.07	.07	.02	.05	.06	.08	.07	.04	.02	.03	.05	.08
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.71**	**.74**	**.51**	**.50**	**.71**	**.96**	**.68**	**.71**	**.81**	**.69**	**.72**	**.73**	**.72**	**.71**	**.67**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.00	.01	.33	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.03	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 81 (cont.)

	PH Perceptions			Disease Burden			Tobacco Use			Exercise Frequency			Body Mass Index		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	$2.85^{\dagger}$	3.67	$4.49^{\dagger\dagger}$	$.00^{\bullet}$	1.11	$5.37^{\bullet\bullet}$	$.00^{\bullet}$	.10	$1.42^{\bullet\bullet}$	$1.04^{\dagger}$	3.19	$5.34^{\dagger\dagger}$	$20.86^{\dagger}$	27.35	$33.84^{\dagger\dagger}$
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.02	.02	.01	.04	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.27	.28	.25	.29	.30	.18	.26	.34	.41	.21	.29	.38	.31	.29	.25
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.16	.16	.14	.16	.17	.10	.17	.02	.00	.16	.16	.15	.11	.15	.17
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.01	.05	.17	.12	.02	.00	.03	.00	.00	.03	.03	.04	.14	.04	.01
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.51**	**.50**	**.43**	**.37**	**.49**	**.71**	**.50**	**.64**	**.59**	**.56**	**.49**	**.41**	**.43**	**.50**	**.54**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.02	.00	.00	.02	.02	.01	.03	.00	.00	.03	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.14	.11	.08	.06	.10	.22	.11	.11	.11	.11	.13	.15	.02	.07	.11
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.04	.05	.05	.06	.04	.00	.03	.03	.16	.04	.00	.00	.00	.01	.04
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.12	.11	.10	.13	.19	.24	.17	.17	.17	.13	.22	.33	.06	.16	.20
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.14	.17	.21	.30	.10	.00	.14	.14	.07	.17	.11	.07	.60	.14	.02
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.57**	**.57**	**.56**	**.42**	**.57**	**.54**	**.55**	**.55**	**.49**	**.56**	**.53**	**.45**	**.32**	**.62**	**.63**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. PH = Physical Health. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. $^{\bullet}$Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. $^{\bullet\bullet}$+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 82. Physical Well-Being Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 3

	PH Perceptions			**Disease Burden**			**Tobacco Use**			**Exercise Frequency**			**Body Mass Index**		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	2.76†	3.60	4.44††	.00$^{\bullet}$	1.26	5.46$^{\bullet\bullet}$	.00$^{\bullet}$	.34	2.47$^{\bullet\bullet}$	.79†	3.15	5.51††	23.97†	30.13	36.29††
P(T1=P1)	.15	.03	.00	.05	.07	.18	.06	.07	.13	.10	.07	.04	.05	.07	.09
P(T1=P2)	.50	.53	.13	.37	.36	.25	.35	.36	.36	.44	.37	.26	.34	.36	.37
P(T1=P3)	.01	.21	.82	.42	.37	.20	.40	.37	.22	.20	.35	.54	.44	.37	.30
P(T1=P4)	.21	.07	.01	.08	.10	.16	.09	.10	.15	.14	.10	.06	.08	.10	.11
P(T1=P5)	.12	.13	.03	.06	.09	.19	.08	.09	.13	.10	.09	.08	.07	.09	.11
P(T1=P6)	.02	.03	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.58**	**.41**	**.21**	**.51**	**.61**	**.60**	**.61**	**.72**	**.41**	**.61**	**.66**	**.68**	**.52**	**.61**	**.63**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.09	.23	.42	.11	.05	.00	.09	.00	.00	.04	.06	.09	.16	.07	.03
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.01	.02	.01	.11	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.26	.20	.11	.23	.29	.34	.19	.28	.59	.27	.25	.22	.19	.25	.31
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.06	.14	.25	.05	.06	.05	.10	.00	.00	.07	.03	.01	.12	.06	.03
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.02	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.67**	**.73**	**.77**	**.77**	**.75**	**.57**	**.76**	**.75**	**.61**	**.73**	**.74**	**.74**	**.78**	**.75**	**.71**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.22	.19	.17	.14	.17	.26	.16	.17	.19	.17	.18	.18	.15	.16	.17
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.05	.05	.04	.07	.04	.01	.03	.04	.16	.05	.05	.04	.04	.05	.06
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.04	.02	.01	.01	.02	.12	.03	.03	.02	.02	.03	.04	.01	.02	.04
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.10	.05	.03	.05	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01	.02	.02	.03	.01	.02	.03
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.86**	**.91**	**.94**	**.93**	**.97**	**.83**	**.95**	**.95**	**.90**	**.97**	**.97**	**.95**	**.95**	**.96**	**.94**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.03	.03	.02	.01	.02	.17	.03	.03	.03	.01	.01	.02	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	.06	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.02
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.02	.01	.00	.05	.04	.00	.04	.00	.00	.01	.05	.16	.00	.01	.04
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.11	.03	.00	.02	.09	.72	.12	.20	.00	.23	.17	.08	.21	.18	.14
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.04	.31	.83	.15	.04	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.01	.18	.17	.06	.02
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.81**	**.65**	**.17**	**.79**	**.83**	**.03**	**.79**	**.80**	**.00**	**.71**	**.76**	**.57**	**.60**	**.72**	**.76**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.12	.05	.00	.00	.05	.02	.01	.01	.03	.04
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.13	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 82 (cont.)

	PH Perceptions			Disease Burden			Tobacco Use			Exercise Frequency			Body Mass Index		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	2.76†	3.60	4.44††	.00•	1.26	5.46••	.00•	.34	2.47••	.79†	3.15	5.51††	23.97†	30.13	36.29††
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.05	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.42	.28	.17	.23	.32	.55	.32	.34	.00	.42	.31	.21	.40	.36	.28
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.08	.13	.19	.23	.14	.02	.13	.15	.00	.13	.16	.17	.27	.14	.07
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.02	.05	.10	.03	.03	.02	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.02	.07	.03	.03	.04
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.48**	**.54**	**.54**	**.46**	**.51**	**.41**	**.55**	**.51**	**.00**	**.44**	**.52**	**.55**	**.30**	**.46**	**.61**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.21	.00	.00	.08	.13	.00	.00	.02	.13	.00	.00	.45
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.03	.11	.00	.05	.03	.01	.01	.03	.02
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.30	.00	.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.00	.03	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.17	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**1.00**	**.98**	**.00**	**.80**	**1.00**	**.00**	**.89**	**.76**	**.00**	**.95**	**.94**	**.68**	**.69**	**.97**	**.53**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. PH = Physical Health. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value of low disease burden/tobacco use since the data distributions are highly skewed, and the -1 SD values are out of range. ••+3 SD because the distributions are highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 83. Work-Related Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 2

	Job Satisfaction		**POS**		
	Low	High	Low	Avg.	High
	1.00	2.00	6.40†	8.50	10.00•
P(T1=P1)	.15	.03	.06	.04	.02
P(T1=P2)	.41	.35	.46	.38	.30
P(T1=P3)	.07	.48	.26	.42	.55
P(T1=P4)	.26	.04	.10	.06	.04
P(T1=P5)	.07	.08	.09	.08	.07
P(T1=P6)	.05	.02	.03	.03	.02
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.39**	**.43**	**.41**	**.43**	**.44**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.21	.11	.14	.10	.08
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.00	.03	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.12	.19	.16	.18	.19
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.24	.25	.26	.26	.26
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.05	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.73**	**.80**	**.81**	**.81**	**.78**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.20	.08	.12	.09	.07
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.05	.08	.06	.08	.10
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.00	.02	.00	.01	.03
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.02	.01	.01	.02	.02
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.29	.13	.17	.15	.13
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.63**	**.86**	**.82**	**.85**	**.86**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.07	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.00	.04	.00	.01	.11
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.16	.22	.23	.16	.12
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.07	.07	.06	.07	.07
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.74**	**.67**	**.70**	**.75**	**.70**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.04	.00	.01	.01	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 83 (cont.)

	Job Satisfaction		POS		
	Low	High	Low	Avg.	High
	1.00	2.00	6.40†	8.50	10.00•
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.15	.27	.22	.28	.31
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.08	.18	.14	.16	.17
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.00	.03	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.68**	**.49**	**.58**	**.50**	**.44**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.08	.02	.01	.02	.05
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.33	.07	.16	.10	.07
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.00	.22	.14	.20	.24
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.00	.14	.21	.15	.11
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.23	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.44**	**.57**	**.49**	**.56**	**.59**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 84. Work-Related Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 3

	Job Satisfaction		**POS**		
	Low	High	Low	Avg.	High
	1.00	2.00	6.22†	8.40	10.00•
P(T1=P1)	.28	.05	.11	.06	.03
P(T1=P2)	.28	.36	.46	.39	.30
P(T1=P3)	.04	.42	.14	.33	.52
P(T1=P4)	.26	.08	.16	.09	.05
P(T1=P5)	.14	.09	.11	.10	.08
P(T1=P6)	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.78**	**.56**	**.69**	**.57**	**.46**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.08	.06	.07	.10	.11
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.00	.03	.00	.01	.04
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.12	.27	.23	.28	.29
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.02	.08	.01	.04	.10
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.00	.02	.01	.01	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.69**	**.78**	**.77**	**.77**	**.73**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.08	.16	.14	.16	.18
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.24	.02	.08	.04	.02
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.00	.03	.01	.02	.05
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.65	.01	.04	.03	.02
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.36**	**.95**	**.94**	**.95**	**.95**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.00	.03	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.06	.03	.01	.04	.07
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.00	.26	.15	.19	.21
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.24	.01	.07	.06	.05
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.69**	**.66**	**.76**	**.72**	**.67**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.00	.05	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 84 (cont.)

	Job Satisfaction		POS		
	Low	High	Low	Avg.	High
	1.00	2.00	6.22†	8.40	10.00•
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.17	.36	.17	.32	.44
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.29	.11	.06	.14	.22
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.10	.01	.04	.03	.02
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.44**	**.51**	**.73**	**.51**	**.33**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.00	.09	.11	.04	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.05	.05	.05
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.00**	**.92**	**.85**	**.92**	**.93**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. POS = Perceived Organizational Support. †-1 SD. •Ten is the representative value of high POS because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 85. Demographic Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 2

	Income Cateogry			Education			Employment Status		Age			Number of Children		
	Low	Middle	High	Low	Avg.	High	Part-time	Full-time	Low	Avg.	High	None	Avg.	Many
	4	7	10	2	5	6			30.46†	42.77	55.08††	0•	.94	4.30••
P(T1=P1)	.09	.05	.02	.10	.04	.03	.05	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.07
P(T1=P2)	.29	.36	.36	.30	.37	.38	.36	.36	.36	.36	.36	.34	.36	.43
P(T1=P3)	.27	.41	.52	.30	.43	.47	.44	.43	.40	.43	.46	.47	.43	.29
P(T1=P4)	.07	.07	.05	.07	.07	.06	.07	.07	.06	.07	.07	.07	.07	.07
P(T1=P5)	.21	.08	.03	.17	.07	.05	.07	.08	.10	.07	.05	.06	.07	.13
P(T1=P6)	.06	.03	.01	.06	.02	.02	.03	.03	.03	.03	.02	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.60**	**.39**	**.18**	**.44**	**.40**	**.30**	**.53**	**.45**	**.27**	**.40**	**.52**	**.44**	**.43**	**.32**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.02	.10	.32	.26	.07	.04	.00	.14	.14	.12	.09	.11	.12	.18
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.02	.04	.06	.01	.05	.07	.03	.01	.05	.04	.02	.03	.04	.08
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.12	.18	.18	.02	.20	.36	.01	.17	.28	.16	.08	.18	.15	.07
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.24	.29	.25	.29	.29	.23	.42	.24	.26	.28	.28	.22	.26	.35
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.73**	**.79**	**.82**	**.72**	**.79**	**.80**	**.76**	**.80**	**.76**	**.79**	**.81**	**.78**	**.79**	**.80**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.08	.09	.11	.12	.10	.10	.12	.09	.12	.10	.08	.10	.10	.11
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.13	.09	.06	.08	.08	.08	.08	.08	.08	.08	.09	.09	.08	.06
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.02	.02	.01	.07	.02	.01	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.01	.02	.03
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.03	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02	.02	.01	.02	.01	.01	.02	.01	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.19	.15	.11	.18	.13	.12	.15	.13	.14	.14	.13	.15	.13	.08
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.78**	**.84**	**.88**	**.81**	**.86**	**.87**	**.84**	**.86**	**.85**	**.86**	**.87**	**.84**	**.86**	**.91**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.02	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.01	.03	.03	.02	.03	.03	.00	.02	.02	.02	.02	.03	.03	.03
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.02	.11	.41	.22	.23	.22	.26	.22	.22	.22	.23	.13	.20	.48
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.23	.09	.02	.01	.05	.09	.05	.06	.05	.06	.08	.13	.05	.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.72**	**.76**	**.53**	**.69**	**.69**	**.67**	**.69**	**.69**	**.71**	**.69**	**.67**	**.71**	**.72**	**.47**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.03	.02	.01	.06	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.02
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 85 (cont.)

	Income Cateogry			Education			Employment Status		Age			Number of Children		
	Low	Middle	High	Low	Avg.	High	Part-time	Full-time	Low	Avg.	High	None	Avg.	Many
	4	7	10	2	5	6			30.46†	42.77	55.08††	0•	.94	4.30••
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.02	.03	.03	.00	.00	.14	.00	.02	.04	.01	.00	.03	.02	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.24	.30	.20	.42	.25	.17	.14	.28	.33	.28	.20	.39	.27	.04
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.15	.17	.10	.14	.15	.13	.28	.15	.11	.17	.23	.11	.15	.28
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.02	.03	.02	.01	.04	.06	.05	.02	.03	.00	.00	.04	.02	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.57**	**.47**	**.21**	**.43**	**.53**	**.46**	**.53**	**.51**	**.45**	**.54**	**.57**	**.42**	**.51**	**.60**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.01	.44	.01	.03	.04	.00	.03	.04	.00	.00	.02	.03	.07
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.24	.07	.01	.31	.09	.05	.00	.12	.14	.11	.06	.13	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.20	.01	.00	.06	.03	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.09	.00	.00
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.13	.25	.18	.21	.16	.13	.34	.18	.15	.20	.19	.00	.00	1.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.28	.10	.01	.10	.12	.11	.31	.11	.31	.07	.01	.20	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.15**	**.57**	**.80**	**.32**	**.61**	**.68**	**.36**	**.59**	**.39**	**.63**	**.74**	**.57**	**1.00**	**.00**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = \$1,000 to \$1,999, 7 = \$4,000 to \$4,999, 10 = \$10,000 to \$14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 4 = Some college, 5 = College graduate. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. Number of children = Number of children living at home. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 86. Demographic Factors as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 3

	Income Cateogry			**Education**			**Employment Status**		**Age**			**Number of Children**		
	Low	Middle	High	Low	Avg.	High	Part-time	Full-time	Low	Avg.	High	None	Avg.	Many
	4	7	10	2	4	5			36.60†	47.65	58.70††	0•	.97	4.00••
P(T1=P1)	.13	.07	.04	.09	.07	.06	.09	.07	.09	.07	.05	.06	.07	.13
P(T1=P2)	.32	.38	.40	.33	.37	.39	.39	.35	.37	.36	.35	.36	.36	.32
P(T1=P3)	.25	.34	.43	.39	.36	.34	.36	.37	.30	.37	.45	.41	.37	.25
P(T1=P4)	.12	.11	.09	.09	.10	.10	.09	.10	.10	.10	.09	.09	.10	.11
P(T1=P5)	.16	.09	.04	.09	.09	.08	.04	.09	.12	.08	.05	.06	.08	.19
P(T1=P6)	.03	.02	.01	.02	.02	.03	.03	.02	.02	.02	.02	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.68**	**.59**	**.46**	**.58**	**.60**	**.42**	**.42**	**.65**	**.73**	**.51**	**.27**	**.58**	**.59**	**.61**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.04	.10	.24	.19	.00	.00	.00	.08	.07	.09	.07	.09	.07	.04
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.15	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.22	.22	.19	.07	.34	.52	.03	.26	.14	.33	.57	.29	.28	.25
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.07	.09	.11	.02	.06	.07	.55	.00	.05	.07	.07	.04	.05	.10
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.02	.02	.02	.00	.01	.02	.00	.02	.02	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.73**	**.76**	**.74**	**.70**	**.74**	**.74**	**.73**	**.76**	**.71**	**.75**	**.77**	**.72**	**.75**	**.79**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.13	.17	.21	.14	.18	.19	.27	.15	.19	.17	.15	.19	.17	.11
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.07	.03	.01	.08	.04	.03	.00	.05	.05	.05	.05	.04	.05	.06
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.06	.03	.01	.06	.03	.02	.00	.03	.02	.02	.02	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.02	.03	.06	.05	.01	.00	.04	.01	.03	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.94**	**.93**	**.91**	**.93**	**.98**	**.99**	**.96**	**.95**	**.95**	**.95**	**.94**	**.96**	**.95**	**.93**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.03	.02	.02	.03	.02	.01	.00	.03	.02	.02	.03	.02	.02	.03
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.02	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.04	.03	.02	.01	.04	.06	.00	.03	.08	.01	.00	.01	.02	.16
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.15	.12	.09	.37	.10	.04	.00	.16	.09	.17	.25	.15	.16	.16
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.05	.04	.03	.14	.05	.03	.26	.06	.12	.03	.01	.06	.07	.07
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.74**	**.80**	**.85**	**.48**	**.82**	**.88**	**.74**	**.72**	**.71**	**.76**	**.67**	**.72**	**.75**	**.61**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.02	.02	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.03	.01	.03	.07	.06	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 86 (cont.)

	Income Cateogry			Education			Employment Status		Age			Number of Children		
	Low	Middle	High	Low	Avg.	High	Part-time	Full-time	Low	Avg.	High	None	Avg.	Many
	4	7	10	2	4	5			36.60†	47.65	58.70††	0•	.97	4.00••
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.29
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.31	.36	.32	.63	.37	.23	.00	.32	.40	.28	.16	.19	.29	.46
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.18	.14	.09	.08	.14	.15	.00	.15	.16	.07	.03	.24	.16	.02
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.00	.03	.26	.05	.00	.00	1.00	.03	.01	.03	.13	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.51**	**.47**	**.34**	**.22**	**.49**	**.61**	**.00**	**.50**	**.43**	**.62**	**.69**	**.57**	**.55**	**.24**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.05	.09	.08	.00	.09	.00	.00	.00	.15	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.09	.01	.34	.00	.00	.00	.04	.05	.03	.02	.04	.04	.03
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.06	.01	.18	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.00**	**.85**	**.98**	**.43**	**.91**	**.92**	**1.00**	**.87**	**.95**	**.97**	**.98**	**.81**	**.96**	**.98**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. Monthly Household Income Categories: 4 = $1,000 to $1,999, 7 = $4,000 to $4,999, 10 = $10,000 to $14,999. Education Categories: 2 = High school degree or diploma, 4 = Some college, 5 = College graduate. Employment status: Part-time = Employed under 30 hours per week, Full-time = Employed for 30 hours or more per week. Number of children = Number of children living at home. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. •Zero is the representative value for the number of children because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. ••+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 87. Work Productivity Variables as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 2

	Self-rated JP			**Absenteeism**			**Presenteeism**		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	7.34†	8.60	9.86††	0•	.34	4.72••	10.66†	12.83	15.00††
P(T1=P1)	.07	.04	.02	.03	.04	.10	.03	.04	.05
P(T1=P2)	.49	.38	.24	.35	.37	.46	.27	.37	.45
P(T1=P3)	.22	.42	.63	.46	.43	.12	.59	.43	.28
P(T1=P4)	.11	.06	.03	.06	.07	.14	.04	.06	.10
P(T1=P5)	.08	.08	.07	.07	.08	.13	.05	.08	.10
P(T1=P6)	.03	.03	.02	.03	.03	.05	.02	.03	.03
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.39**	**.47**	**.54**	**.45**	**.44**	**.40**	**.53**	**.48**	**.39**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.14	.10	.07	.11	.11	.16	.05	.08	.13
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.01	.04	.04	.05
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.13	.09	.07	.16	.16	.16	.06	.12	.20
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.32	.31	.28	.27	.27	.27	.32	.28	.23
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.76**	**.80**	**.83**	**.80**	**.80**	**.54**	**.83**	**.80**	**.76**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.12	.10	.08	.09	.10	.21	.10	.10	.11
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.08	.08	.08	.08	.09	.16	.04	.07	.11
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.02	.01	.01	.01	.02	.09	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.01	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.02	.01	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.06	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.16	.14	.12	.14	.13	.05	.13	.14	.15
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.83**	**.85**	**.87**	**.85**	**.86**	**.89**	**.86**	**.85**	**.85**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 87 (cont.)

	Self-rated JP			**Absenteeism**			**Presenteeism**		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	$7.34^{\dagger}$	8.60	$9.86^{\dagger\dagger}$	$0^{\bullet}$	.34	$4.72^{\bullet\bullet}$	$10.66^{\dagger}$	12.83	$15.00^{\dagger\dagger}$
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.01	.02	.04	.02	.02	.03	.05	.02	.01
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.23	.23	.22	.23	.23	.16	.28	.25	.21
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.05	.07	.10	.06	.06	.05	.07	.06	.06
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.70**	**.68**	**.64**	**.68**	**.69**	**.76**	**.60**	**.67**	**.72**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.03	.01	.00	.03	.00	.00	.01	.02	.03
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.32	.29	.26	.27	.29	.15	.22	.26	.28
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.15	.17	.19	.18	.16	.01	.25	.18	.12
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.01	.02	.04	.02	.03	.03	.01	.02	.05
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.50**	**.51**	**.50**	**.46**	**.53**	**.81**	**.48**	**.52**	**.52**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00	.03	.02	.01
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.16	.11	.07	.07	.09	.45	.05	.10	.17
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.06	.13	.26	.17	.19	.29	.16	.20	.22
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	.13	.12	.10	.12	.13	.08	.21	.09	.03
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.03	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.62**	**.63**	**.57**	**.63**	**.60**	**.18**	**.58**	**.62**	**.58**

Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. JP = Job Performance. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. $^{\bullet}$Zero is the representative value for absenteeism because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. $^{\bullet\bullet}$+3 SD because the distribution is highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Table 88. Work Productivity Variables as Covariates of Latent Transition Probabilities in Sample 3

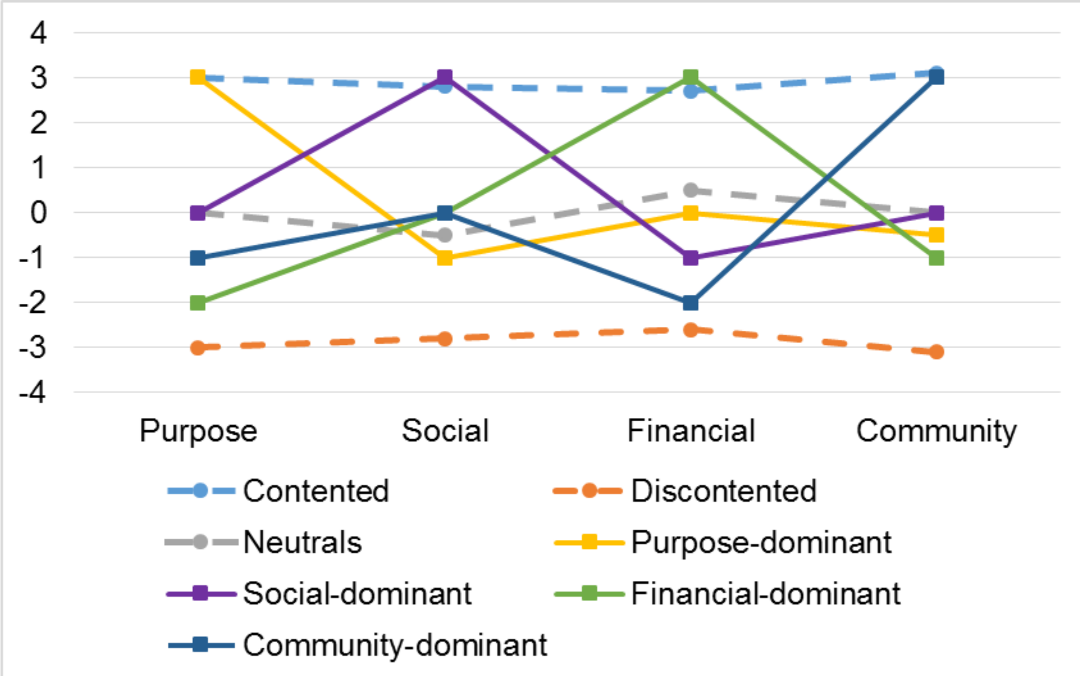
	Self-rated JP			**Absenteeism**			**Presenteeism**		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	7.98[†]	9.14	10.00*	0[•]	.35	4.83[••]	8.18[†]	10.09	12.00[††]
P(T1=P1)	.11	.07	.04	.07	.07	.09	.06	.07	.08
P(T1=P2)	.50	.38	.26	.35	.35	.46	.31	.37	.39
P(T1=P3)	.13	.33	.54	.38	.37	.27	.52	.36	.23
P(T1=P4)	.15	.10	.06	.10	.10	.08	.05	.09	.15
P(T1=P5)	.10	.10	.08	.09	.09	.08	.05	.09	.13
P(T1=P6)	.01	.02	.03	.02	.02	.01	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P1)	**.65**	**.59**	**.54**	**.66**	**.64**	**.25**	**.63**	**.62**	**.59**
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P1)	.04	.08	.13	.08	.08	.02	.06	.07	.07
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P1)	.02	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P1)	.24	.25	.26	.17	.20	.63	.28	.28	.27
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P1)	.05	.06	.07	.07	.08	.11	.02	.03	.06
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P1)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P2)	.02	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P2)	**.73**	**.76**	**.77**	**.76**	**.81**	**.77**	**.87**	**.79**	**.64**
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P2)	.21	.16	.13	.14	.16	.22	.10	.16	.24
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P2)	.03	.05	.06	.05	.00	.00	.00	.01	.08
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P2)	.02	.02	.02	.03	.03	.02	.03	.02	.02
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P2)	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P3)	.03	.02	.01	.02	.01	.00	.03	.01	.01
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P3)	**.95**	**.96**	**.93**	**.95**	**.96**	**.98**	**.94**	**.96**	**.97**
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P3)	.02	.02	.03	.03	.03	.02	.02	.02	.02
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.03	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P3)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00

Table 88 (cont.)

	Self-rated JP			Absenteeism			Presenteeism		
	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High	Low	Avg.	High
	$7.98^{\dagger}$	9.14	10.00*	$0^{\bullet}$	.35	$4.83^{\bullet\bullet}$	$8.18^{\dagger}$	10.09	$12.00^{\dagger\dagger}$
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P4)	.01	.04	.10	.02	.03	.14	.04	.05	.05
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P4)	.16	.16	.16	.15	.17	.15	.00	.00	.12
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P4)	.06	.08	.10	.08	.00	.00	.08	.10	.10
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P4)	**.74**	**.68**	**.61**	**.71**	**.80**	**.72**	**.88**	**.85**	**.73**
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P4)	.03	.04	.04	.04	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P4)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.02	.05	.12	.02	.01	.00
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P5)	.49	.30	.16	.23	.66	.88	.06	.16	.36
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P5)	.05	.13	.21	.16	.22	.00	.25	.21	.14
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.10	.04	.08	.00	.09	.06	.03
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P5)	**.46**	**.57**	**.53**	**.57**	**.00**	**.00**	**.58**	**.58**	**.48**
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P5)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P1)|(T1=P6)	.00	.01	.00	.08	.00	.00	.00	.00	.33
P(T2=P2)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.07	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.31
P(T2=P3)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.07	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P4)|(T1=P6)	1.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	1.00	.00	.00	.00
P(T2=P5)|(T1=P6)	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00
P(T2=P6)|(T1=P6)	**.00**	**.99**	**.86**	**.89**	**1.00**	**.00**	**.00**	**.98**	**.36**

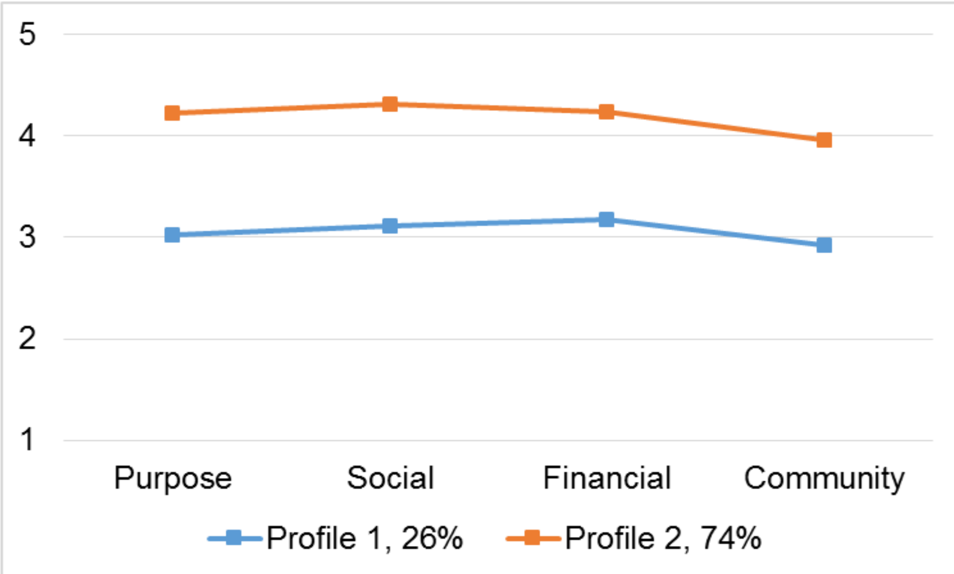
Notes. T1 = Time 1. T2 = Time 2. P1 to P6 = Profile 1 to Profile 6. JP = Job Performance. †-1 SD. ††+1 SD. *Ten is the representative value of high JP because the data distribution is skewed, and the +1 SD value is out of range. $^{\bullet}$Zero is the representative value for absenteeism because the data distribution is highly skewed, and the -1 SD value is out of range. $^{\bullet\bullet}$+2 SD because the distribution is highly skewed. Covariates were measured in Time 1. Probabilities including the vertical bar (|) represent transition probabilities.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Well-Being Profiles



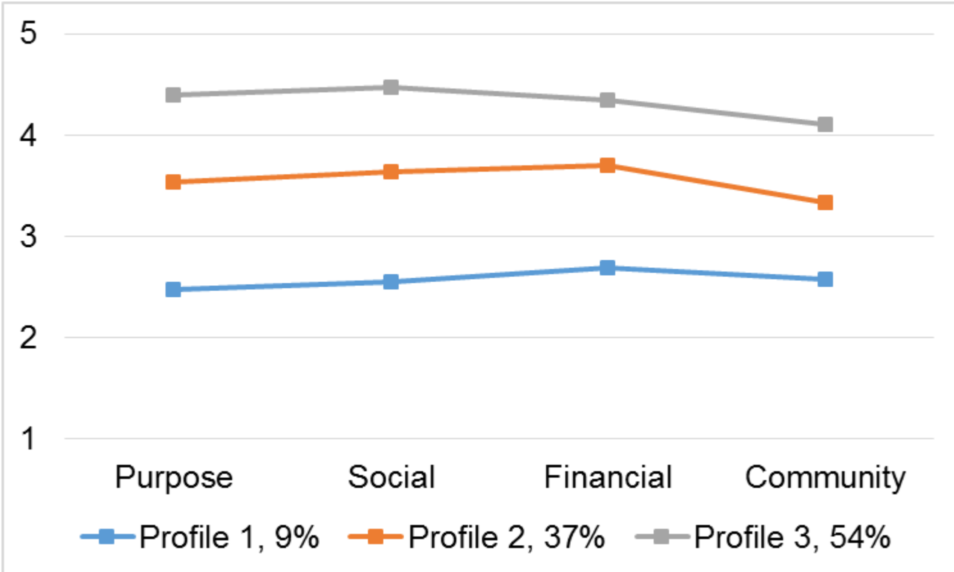
Notes: The value of 0 represents the sample average, each data point approximately represents the expected deviation from the average. Solid lines represent profiles with level differences. Dashed lines represent profiles with shape differences.

Figure 2. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 2-Profile Solution



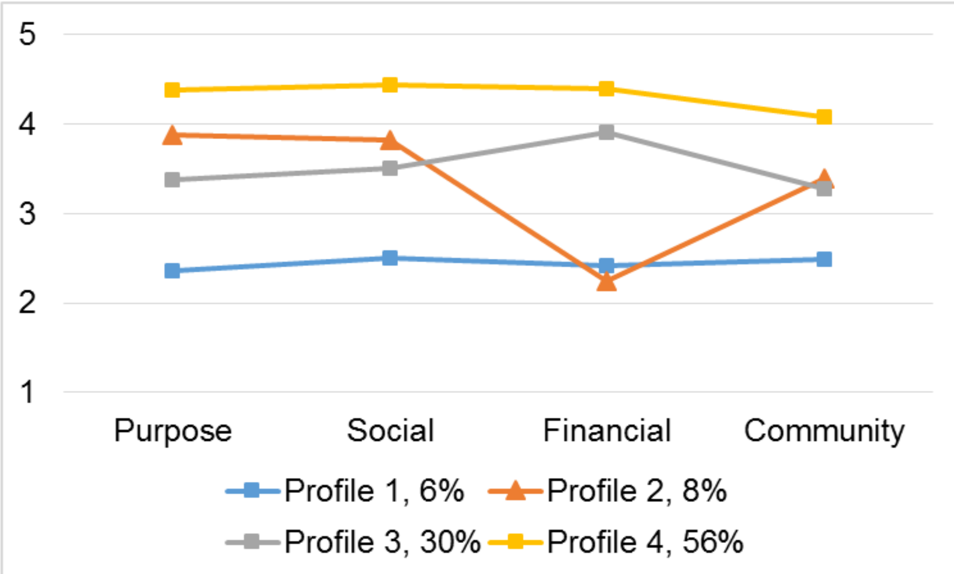
Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 3. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 3-Profile Solution



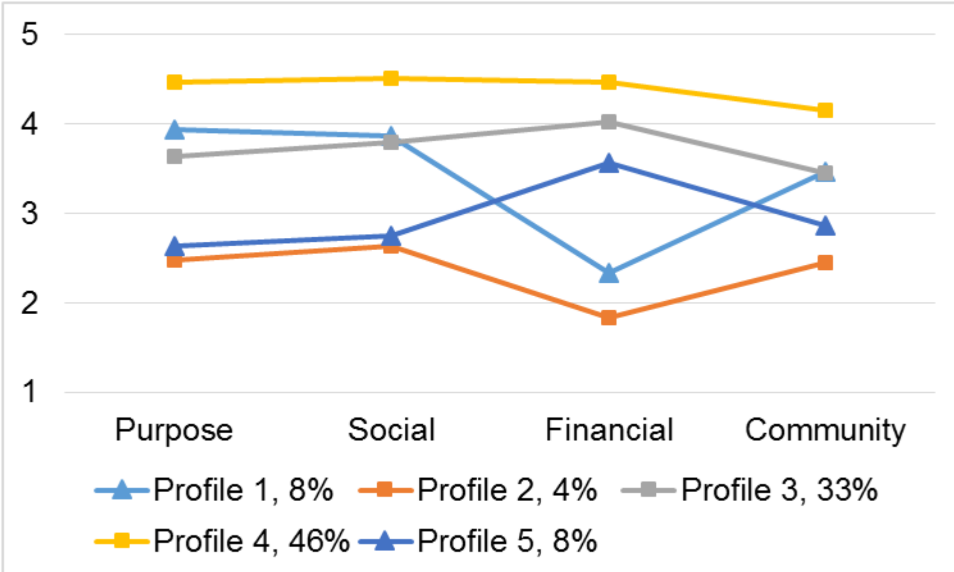
Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 4. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 4-Profile Solution



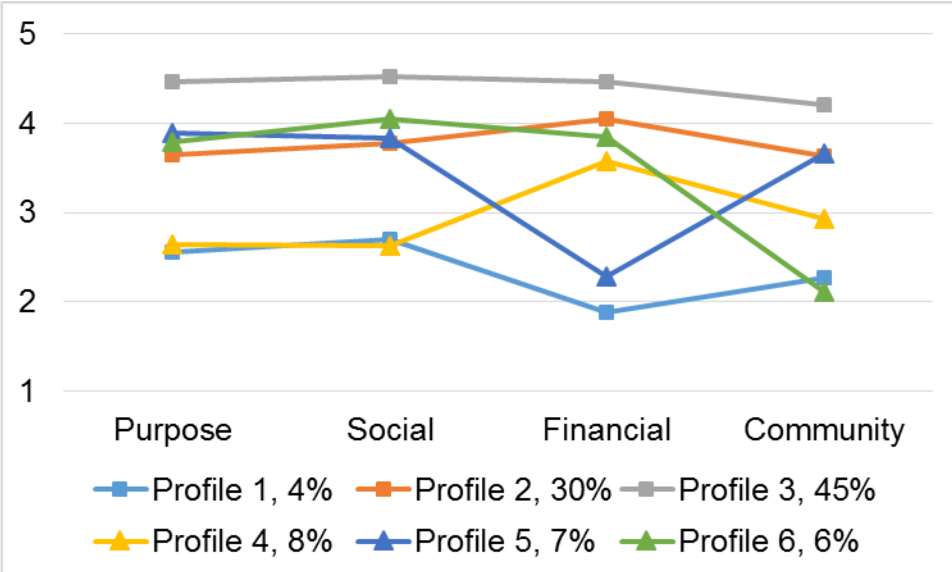
Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 5. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 5-Profile Solution



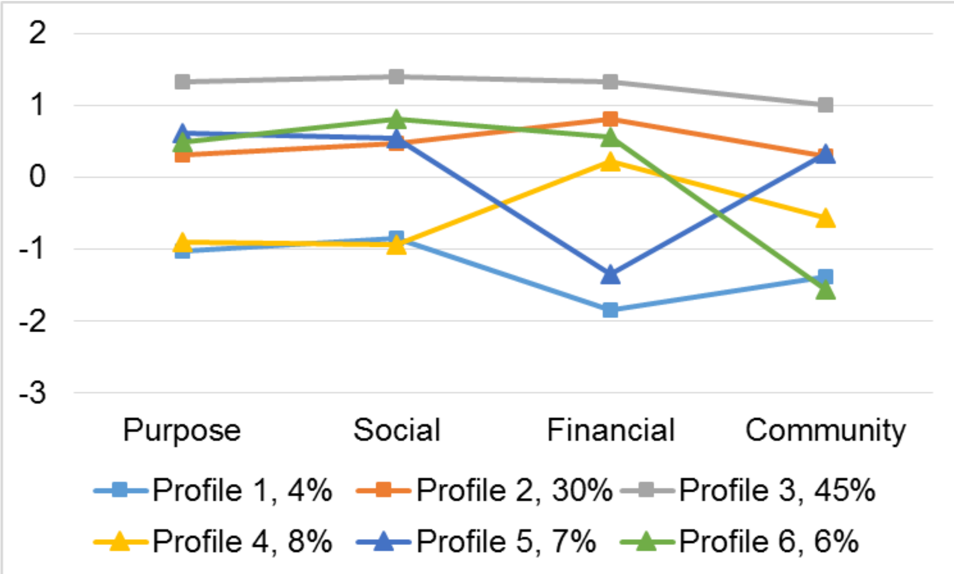
Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 6a. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 6-Profile Solution



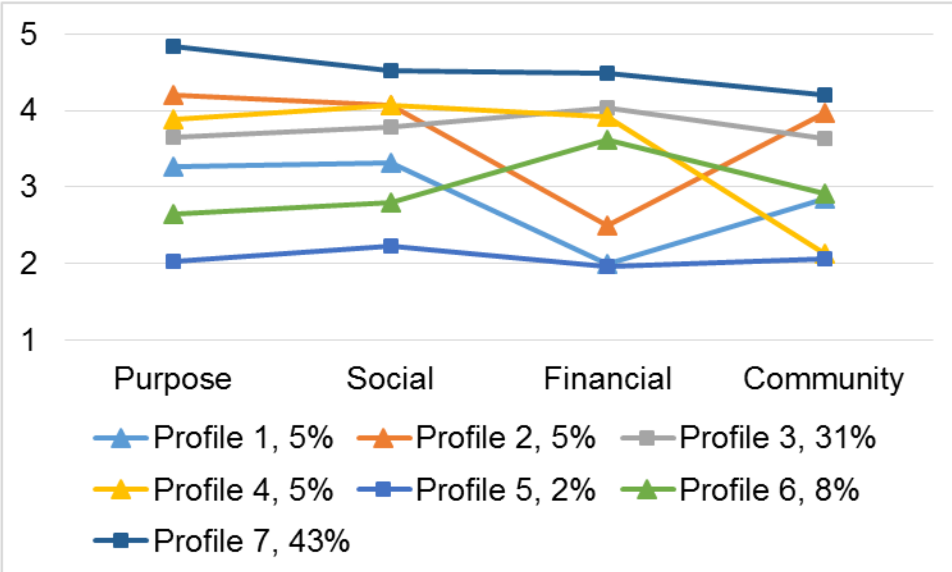
Note. *N* = 199,617. Intercepts from this exploratory model were used to form constraints in the confirmatory tests in Sample 2 and Sample 3.

Figure 6b. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 6-Profile Solution (plotted using z-scores)



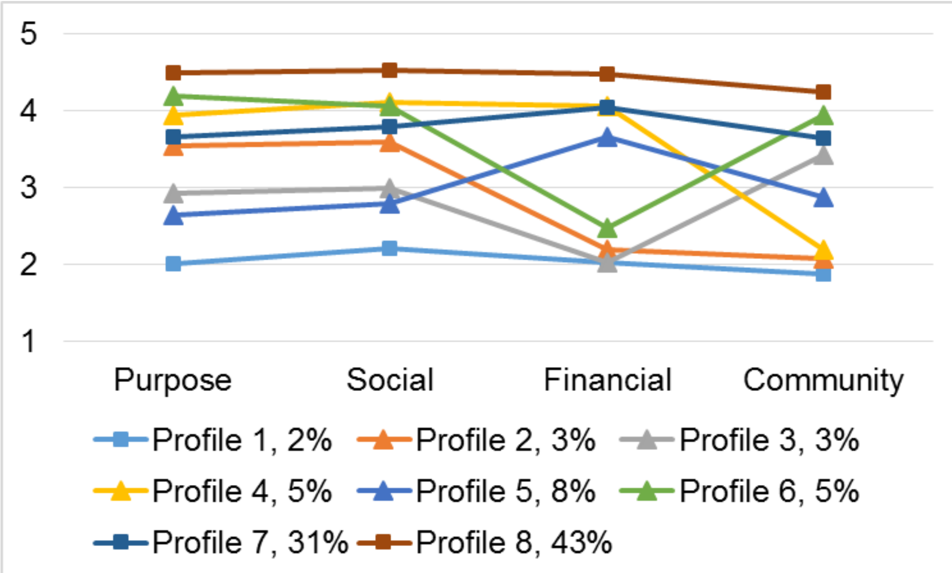
Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 7. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 7-Profile Solution



Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 8. Exploratory Profiles in Sample 1: 8-Profile Solution



Note. N = 199,617.

Figure 9. Vuong-Lo-Mendell-Rubin -2 Log-Likelihood Differences in Each Exploratory Latent Profile Analysis in Sample 1

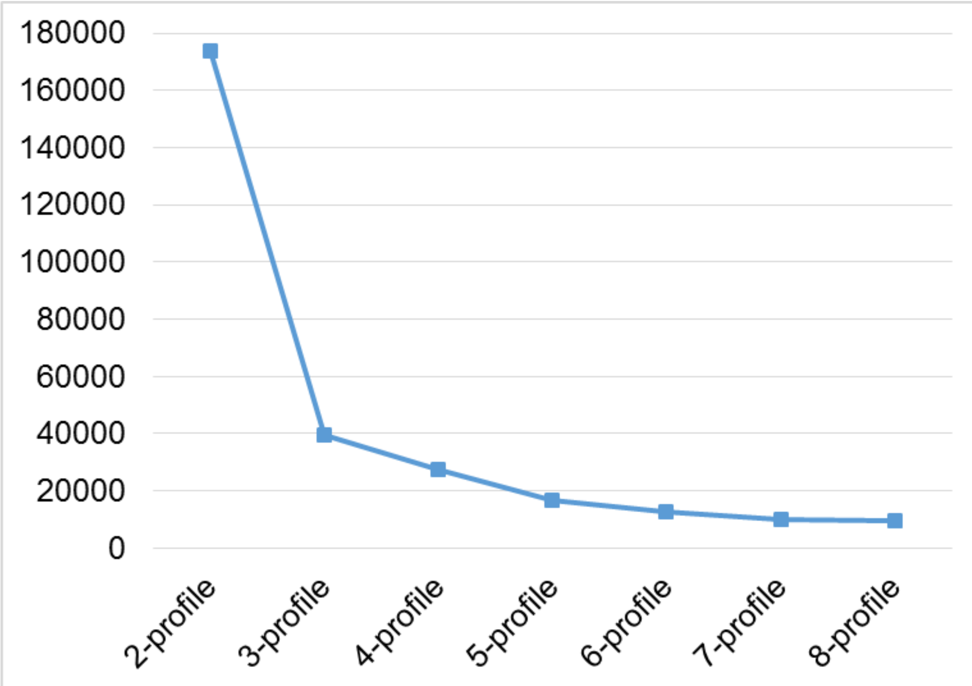
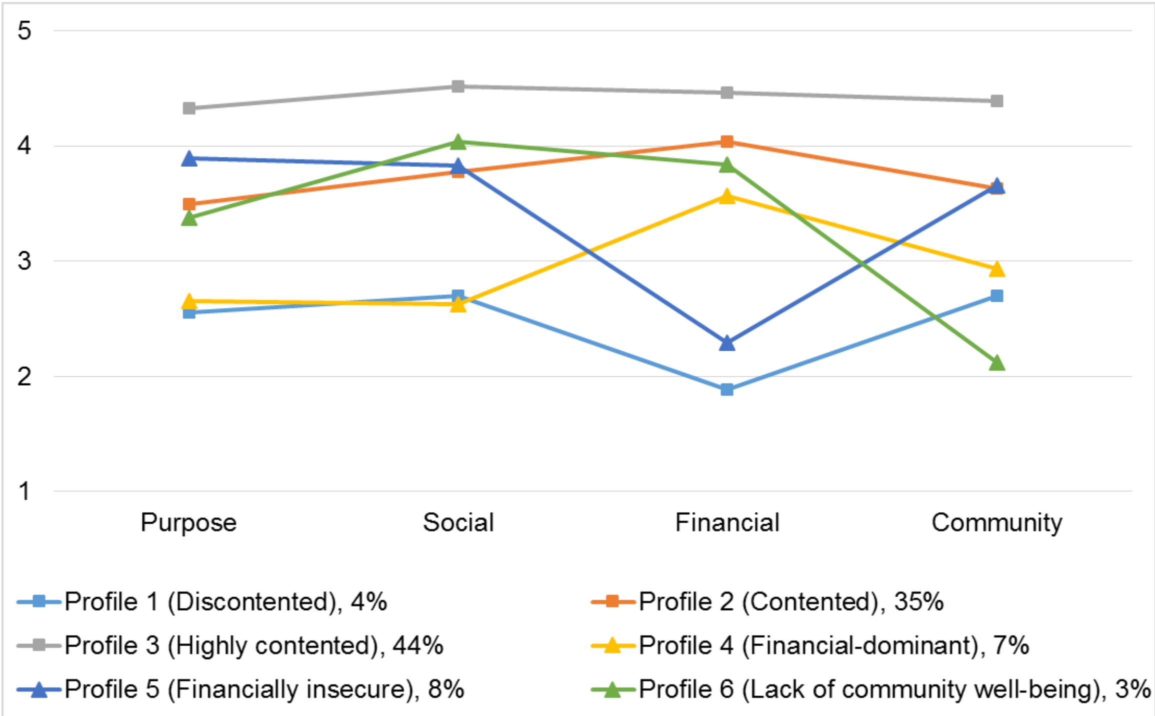
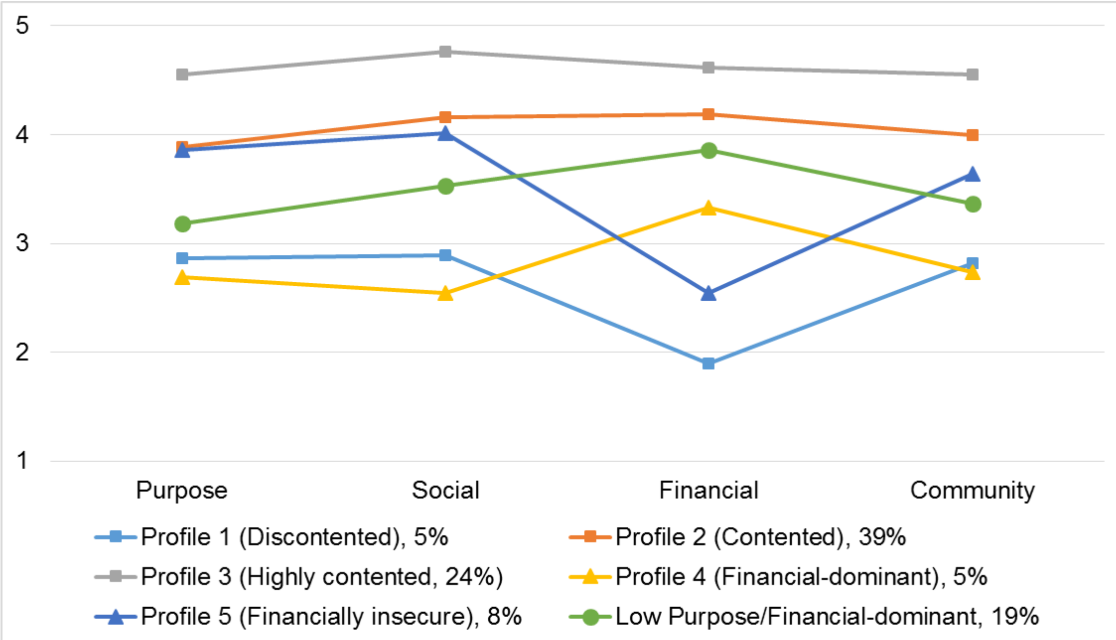


Figure 10. Confirmatory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)



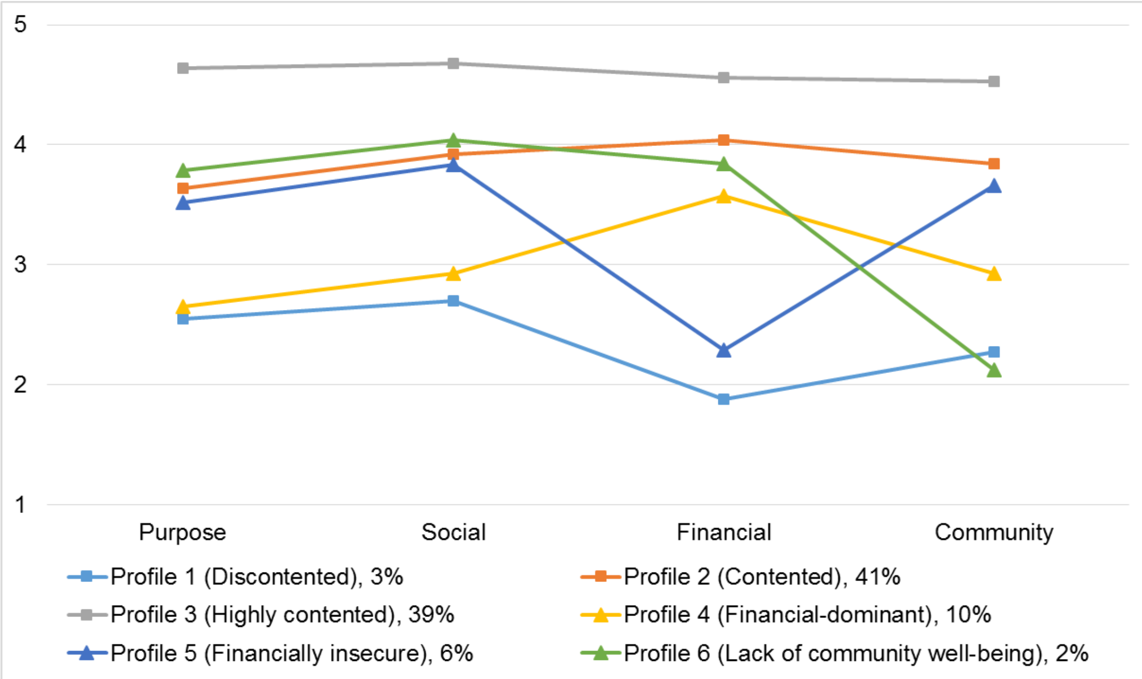
Notes. *N* = 3,464. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Five intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 13); the interpretation of profiles remain the same. Intercepts from this model were used in subsequent analyses of profile predictors, outcomes, and stability.

Figure 11. Exploratory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 2 (2014; Time 1)



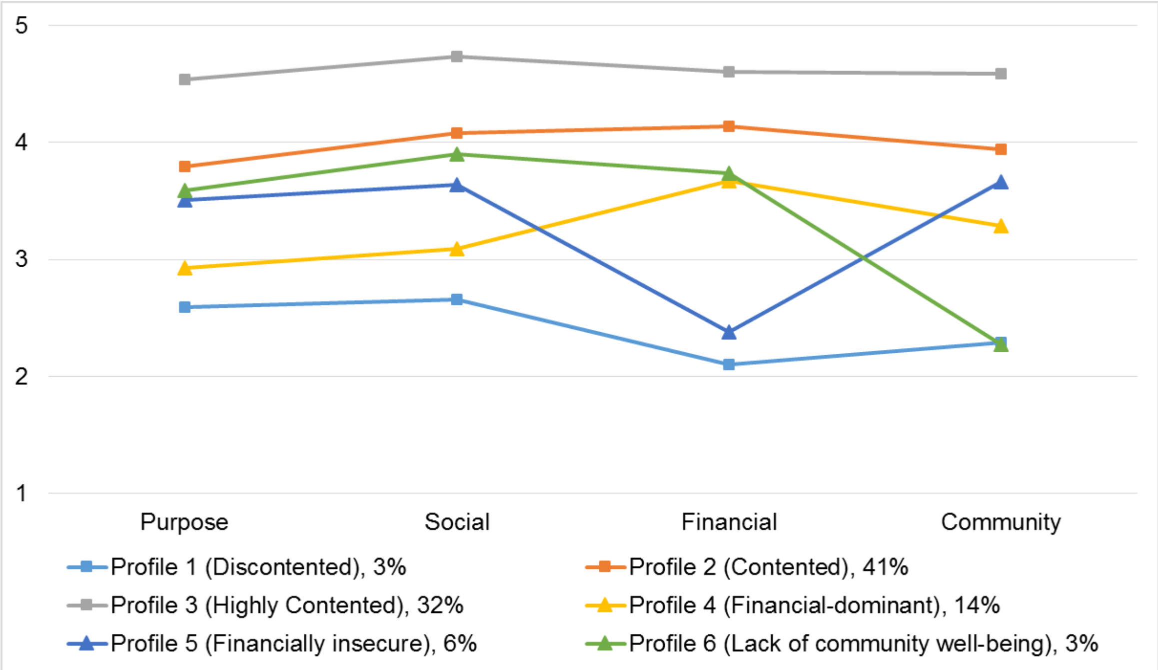
Notes. *N* = 3,464. All intercepts in the model were freely estimated.

Figure 12. Confirmatory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)



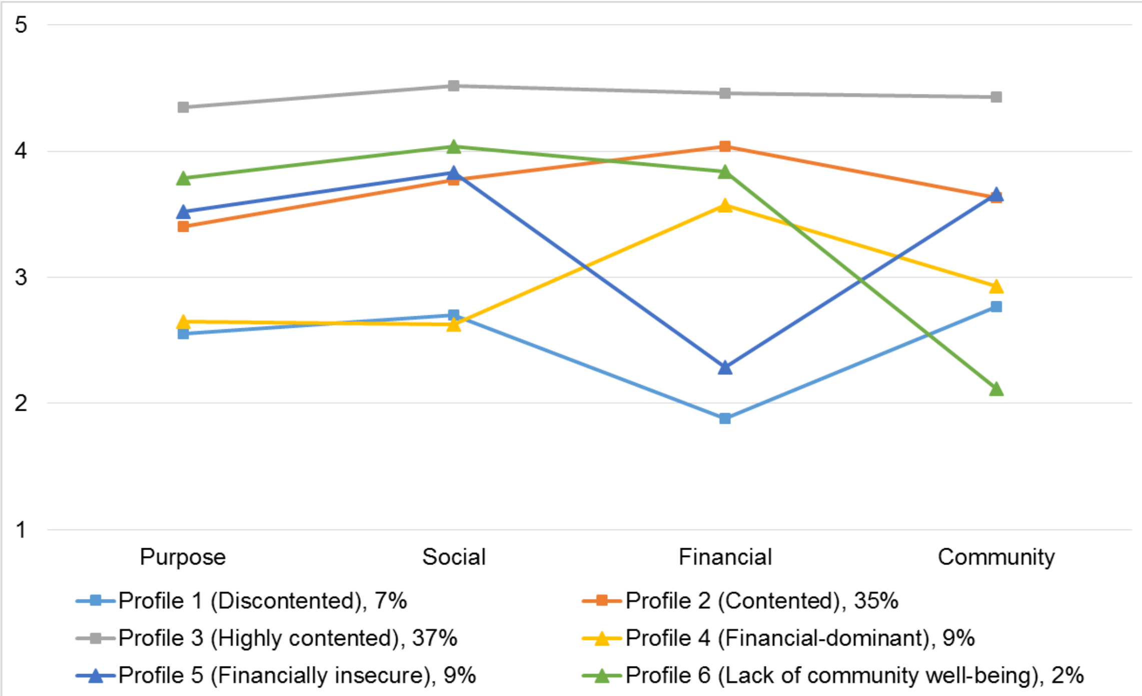
Notes. *N* = 3,516. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Seven intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 17); the interpretation of profiles remain the same. Intercepts from this model were used in subsequent analyses of profile predictors, outcomes, and stability.

Figure 13. Exploratory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 2 (2015; Time 2)



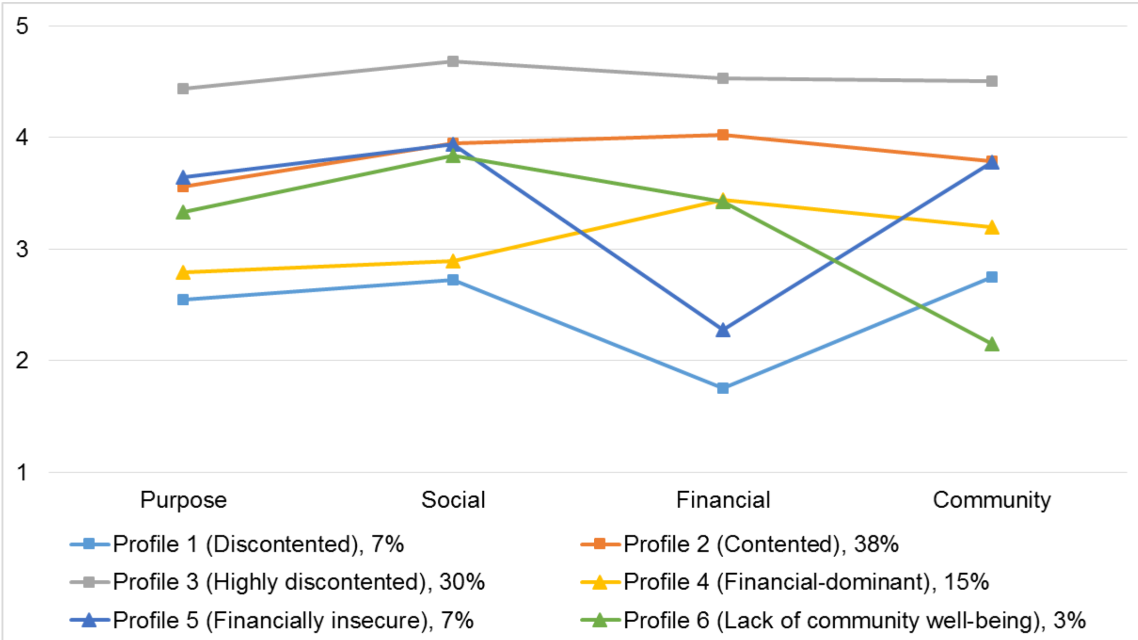
Notes. *N* = 3,516. All intercepts in the model were freely estimated.

Figure 14. Confirmatory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)



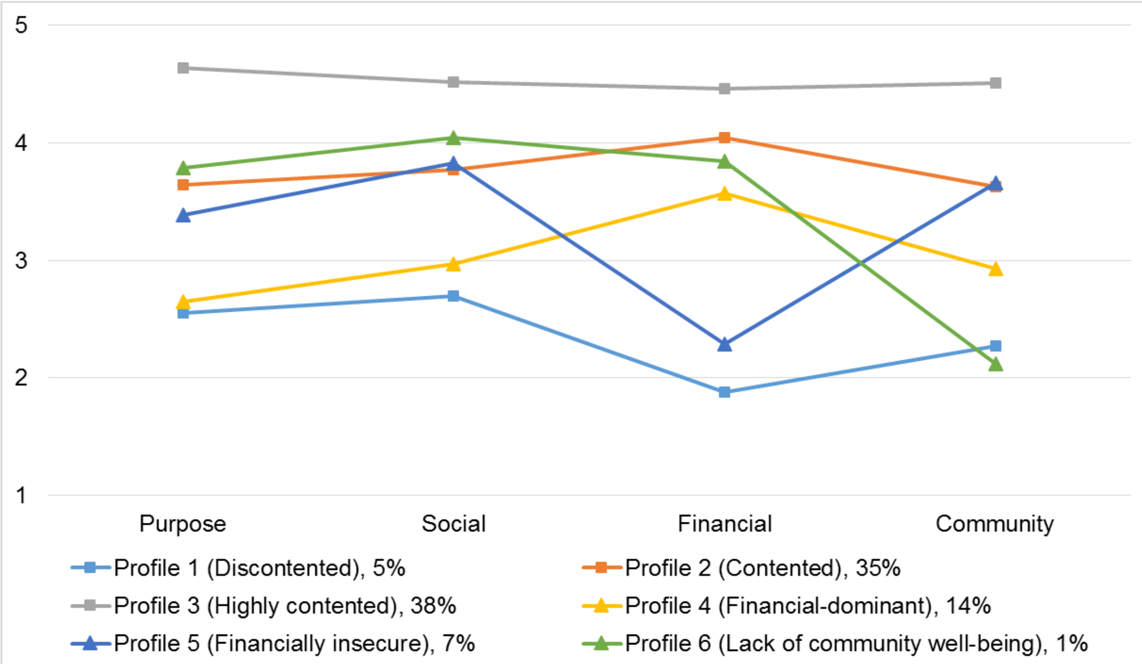
Notes. *N* = 1,714. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Five intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 21); the interpretation of profiles remain the same. Intercepts from this model were used in subsequent analyses of profile predictors, outcomes, and stability.

Figure 15. Exploratory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 3 (2014; Time 1)



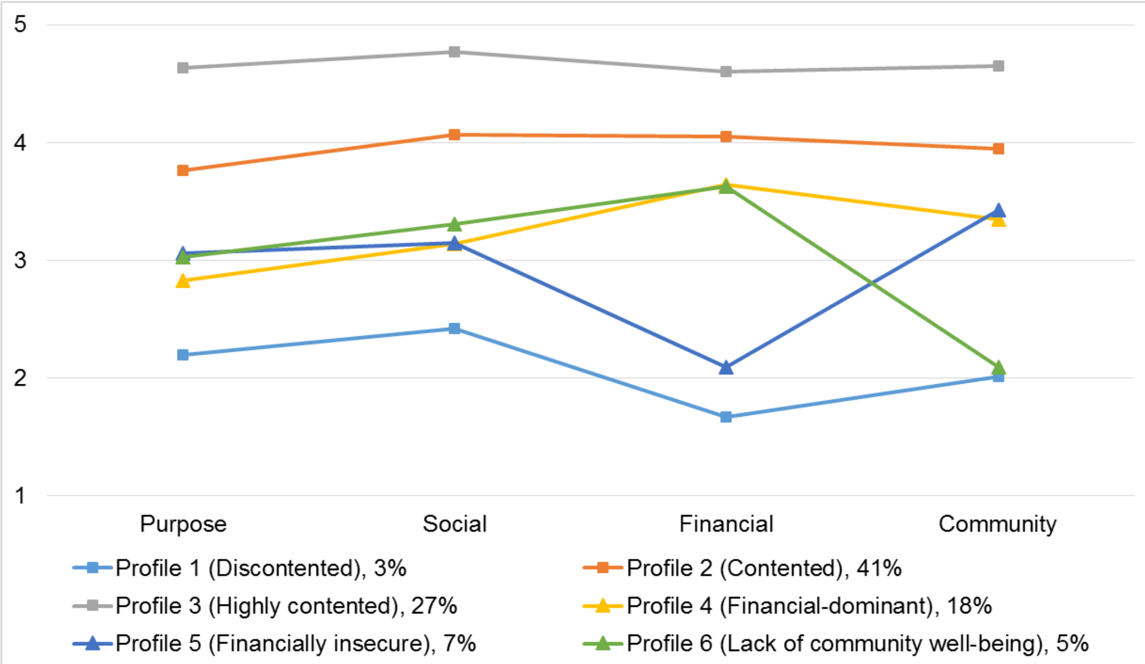
Notes. *N* = 1,714. All intercepts in the model were freely estimated.

Figure 16. Confirmatory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)



Notes. *N* = 1,583. This confirmatory model includes intercept constraints obtained in Sample 1. Three intercepts were freely estimated (see Table 25); the interpretation of profiles remain the same. Intercepts from this model were used in subsequent analyses of profile predictors, outcomes, and stability.

Figure 17. Exploratory Profile Analysis of 6-Profile Model in Sample 3 (2015; Time 2)



Notes. *N* = 1,583. All intercepts in the model were freely estimated.