Drouin-Rousseau, S., Morin, A. J. S., Fernet, C., Austin, S., & Fabi, B. (2024). A person-centered perspective on employees' human resource management values and their implication for organizational commitment. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences / Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration, 41(3), 398-413. https://doi.org/10.1002/cjas.1754

Received: 26 January 2023 | Revised: 1 May 2024 | Accepted: 11 May 2024

DOI: 10.1002/cjas.1754

WILEY

RESEARCH ARTICLE

A person-centered perspective on employees' human resource management values and their implication for organizational commitment

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Abstract

Human resource management (HRM) practices and their associations with employees' job attitudes and behaviors are well-established, although the psychological mechanisms underlying these associations remain unclear. Based on the ability-motivation-opportunity framework, we propose that employees' HRM values play a key role in these associations. Specifically, we propose that employees' perceptions of the HRM practices present in their organization will predict their HRM value profiles which, in turn, will predict their levels of commitment. Latent profile analyses revealed four profiles characterized by very low, low, moderate, and high levels of HRM values. Our results suggest that ability-enhancing practices play an active role in employees' organizational commitment by shaping their HRM values.

KEYWORDS
ability-motivation-opportunity framework, commitment, HRM practices, human resource management values, profiles

Résumé

Les pratiques de gestion des ressources humaines (GRH) et leurs associations avec les attitudes et les comportements des employés sont bien établies. Toutefois, les mécanismes psychologiques sous-jacents à ces associations demeurent incertains. S'appuyant sur le modèle compétence-motivation-opportunité, nous proposons que les valeurs RH des employés jouent un rôle clé dans ces associations. Plus précisément, nous proposons que les perceptions des employés quant aux pratiques de GRH présentes dans leur organisation prédisent leurs profils de valeurs RH qui, en retour, prédisent leurs niveaux d'engagement. Les analyses de profils latents ont révélé quatre profils se caractérisant par des niveaux de valeurs RH très faibles, faibles, modérés et élevés. Les résultats suggèrent que les pratiques axées sur les compétences

jouent un rôle actif dans l'engagement organisationnel des employés en façonnant leurs valeurs RH.

MOTS-CLÉS
engagement, modèle compétence-motivation-opportunité, pratiques de gestion des ressources humaines, profils, valeurs RH

JEL CLASSIFICATION
L2 Firm objectives, organization and behavior

1 | INTRODUCTION

The ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) model provides one of the most comprehensive operationalizations of human resource management (HRM) practices (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2012). This model assumes that HRM systems designed to enhance employees' abilities (e.g., selection, training and development), motivation (e.g., performance appraisal, supervision, benefits, and compensation), and opportunity (e.g., communication, participation, work-life balance, and work design) are likely to result in several benefits for employees (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance) and organizations (e.g., productivity, human capital) (Combs et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012). Although research has gathered considerable support for this model (Boon et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2012), it neglects to consider the extent to which employees value these practices, which is a critical component of the links between HRM practices and employees' job attitudes. As noted by Garg et al. (2021), HRM research requires a better understanding of how employees perceive and react to HRM practices, as these perceptions are likely to shape the effectiveness of these practices. Human resource management values could thus provide insights into employees' differential reactions to HRM practices, a possibility that has yet to be investigated.

We draw on the AMO framework and research on work values to introduce a new concept: HRM values. Our central proposal is that the value ascribed to various HRM practices differs across employees, and that these differences may explain how HRM practices relate to employees' commitment to their organization, a key criterion of HRM system's effectiveness (Boon et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2012).

1.1 | From work to human resource management values

Work values refer to motivational beliefs that serve as standards for assessing jobs or work environments (Busque-Carrier et al., 2022a; Ros et al., 1999), describing what employees want out of their jobs. Typically assessed by the importance that people attribute to different facets of their work environments (Busque-Carrier et al., 2022a), work values are associated with a variety of work attitudes, behaviors, social interactions, and roles (Ros et al., 1999). Human resource management values refer more specifically to the relative importance ascribed by employees to specific types of HRM practices (e.g., training and development, supervision, job design) and relates to the definition of work values as standards or criteria used to assess prevailing HRM practices (Drouin Rousseau et al., 2023). These motivational beliefs about the importance and desirability of HRM practices are assumed to guide employees' perceptions of the HRM practices implemented in their workplace, as well as their reactions to these practices in the form of work attitudes and behaviors. Human resource management values extends the research literature on attribution-based perception of HRM practices, a theory that focuses on better understanding the different reactions of employees toward HRM practices. While Nishii and Wright (2008) mentioned that individual differences, like values, might influence their reaction to HRM practices, there is currently no study that focuses on better understanding the influence of personal values on HRM practices perception and overall HRM system effectiveness.

Drouin Rousseau et al. (2023) recently proposed an integrative measure of work values, focusing on nine well-established HRM practices (Boon et al., 2019; Fabi et al., 2015; Geringer et al., 2002; Lepak et al., 2006). Each practice is measured by 4 items on which employees have to indicate the relative importance (value) they ascribe to each of them: selection (e.g., Hiring decisions are influenced by the experience in a similar job or an employment test), training and development (e.g., Training and development aim to prepare employee for future task or improve the performance of employees), supervision (e.g., My immediate superior recognize good performances or is friendly and approachable), performance appraisal (e.g., Performance appraisal aims to recognize good work or identify employee's strengths and weaknesses), compensation (e.g., Compensation practices include a part of the salary based on the knowledge or

skill of the employees or financial incentives), benefits (e.g., Benefit practice includes collective insurance or a pension plan), communication and participation (e.g., Communication and participation practices include the ability to make decisions related to my work or a good communication between departments), work-life balance (e.g., Work-life balance practices include the possibility to arrange my work time or to work from home), and work design (e.g., Work design practices allow me to have an interesting job with a variety of tasks or to be free to explore my own ideas) consistent with the AMO framework (Appelbaum et al., 2000). In addition to providing evidence supporting the psychometric properties of this measure (i.e., factor structure, reliability, invariance across types of employees), these authors demonstrated that these values could be used to predict employees' job attitudes (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction).

Given the novelty of HRM values, we cannot rely on previous research to establish the extent to which they are stable (trait-like), the extent to which they fluctuate over time (state-like), the extent to which they possess these two types of properties (trait vs. state), and the extent to which both of these properties can be modified in contact with employees' work environment. However, we know that this distinction is not crucial to make at this early stage of research on HRM values, especially in the context of a cross-sectional study making it impossible to separate these two components, given that most psychological constructs (Hofmans et al., 2021; Lance et al., 2021; Navarro et al., 2020), including work values (Jin & Rounds, 2012), are known to display trait and state components. However, if we consider so-called hierarchical conceptualizations of psychological constructs (e.g., Perreira et al., 2018; Shavelson et al., 1976; Vallerand, 1997), which highlight that many constructs can be studied at different levels of generality (trait/dispositional, contextual [e.g., work, education, sport], state/situational), HRM values can be positioned to occur at the contextual level, as they are embedded in a specific domain (work).

Based on the literature on personal resources in the job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) and on work motivation within the self-determination theory (SDT) research tradition (Deci et al., 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fernet & Austin, 2014), psychological constructs located at the contextual level are usually seen as being relatively stable (without being rigid dispositional tendencies) and open to change (without being purely ephemeral or situational), and are thus likely to play a dual role. Consistent with the view that employees may develop, adapt, and modify their HRM values based on their interaction with their work environment, HRM values are likely to directly influence their job attitudes (such as commitment), to be influenced by the characteristics of their work context (such as HRM practices), and to moderate associations between work characteristics and job attitudes. Accordingly, exposure to specific HRM practices should lead to the internalization of matching HRM values, and these values should themselves influence specific outcomes. Beyond these direct effects, HRM values can also account for individual differences in how employees perceive, interpret, and react to their environment, thus acting as a potential moderator for the associations between work characteristics and specific outcomes. In the current study, our theoretical framework account for all of these possibilities, illustrated in Figure 1, raising the idea that HRM values, although partly determined by HRM practices, can also contribute to shape and redefine employees' perceptions, and even influence how employees adapt and respond to HRM practices.

1.2 | A person-centered approach to human resource management values

By focusing on subpopulations characterized by distinct configurations, or profiles, on a set of variables, person-centered analyses are naturally suited to study the joint effects of variable combinations, such as HRM value

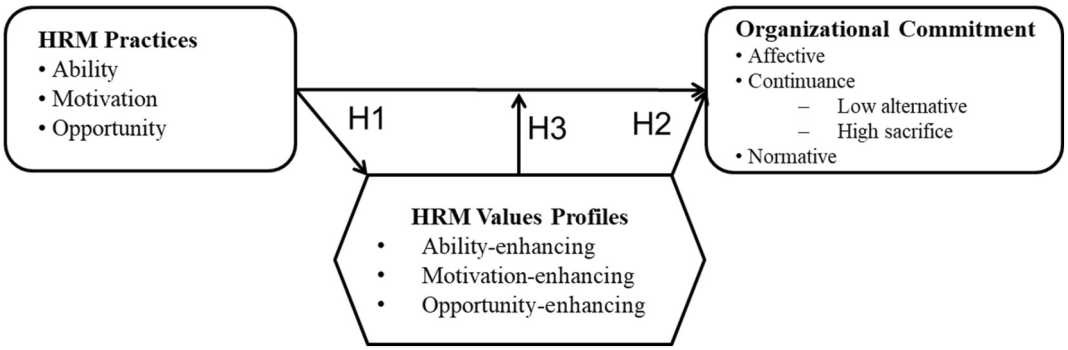

FIGURE 1 Proposed model. Following usual conventions (e.g., Morin & Litalien, 2019), continuous variables are indicated within rounded shapes, whereas profiles (latent categories) are indicated within a polygonal shape.

configurations (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Rather than trying to understand how distinct variables relate to other variables in a way that is assumed to generalize to every member of the sample, person-centered analyses identify subpopulations of employees characterized by distinct configurations of HRM values (Meyer & Morin, 2016). These profiles may differ in terms of quantity (quantitatively: similar scores across all HRM values) or configuration (qualitatively: distinct patterns of high, low, and average scores on the HRM values). In this study, quantitative differences would reveal distinctions linked to the global level of value ascribed to all HRM practices (globally high, moderate, or low), whereas qualitative differences would reveal distinctions linked to the relative value ascribed to distinct HRM practices. In either case, a person-centered approach would provide a more holistic picture of HRM values able to account for employees' unique configuration of HRM values.

To our knowledge, no study has ever relied on person-centered methodologies to study HRM practices, or their relative value, even though this approach is applied in other fields of organizational studies (Hofmans et al., 2021), including employee commitment (Meyer & Morin, 2016), motivation (Fernet et al., 2020) and work values (Busque-Carrier et al., 2022b). A person-centered approach would benefit the study of HRM practices by bringing a new understanding of how distinct HRM values coexist within individuals, of how perception of the presence of distinct sets of HRM practices relates to different HRM value configurations, and of the work-related attitudes and behaviors associated with these configurations. Lacking prior guidance from HRM research, we leave as an open research question the number and nature of the profiles that will best reflect employees' distinct HRM values configurations (**Research Question 1**).

1.3 | Ability-, motivation-, and opportunity- enhancing human resource management practices as predictors of human resource management values

The AMO framework considers that sets of HRM practices are more meaningful than isolated practices (Combs et al., 2006), as organizations tend to expose employees to consistent sets of HRM practices rather than to isolated practices that vary independently from one another. According to self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), positive work attitudes and goal-directed behaviors are assumed to emerge from exposure to environments likely to support the basic psychological needs for autonomy (volition), competence (efficacy), and relatedness (belongingness). The presence of HRM practices consistent with one's values should thus help to nurture need satisfaction (O'Reilly et al., 1991), leading to the internalization of the objectives of these practices into employees' professional identity (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000). The AMO sets of practices clearly target the needs for autonomy (Opportunity-enhancing practices) and competence (Ability-enhancing practices), in addition to work motivation (Motivation-enhancing practices), conceptualized by SDT as emerging from the satisfaction of all three needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Moreover, although these sets of practices do not directly target the need for relatedness, some Opportunity-enhancing practices are likely to support this need (i.e., communication, participation, work-life balance). The process of internalization proposed by SDT to underpin the integration of need-nurturing HRM practices into one's professional identity (Ryan & Deci, 2020) thus suggests that the presence of AMO enhancing HRM practices should progressively lead employees to internalize these practices into their own value system. As a result, the configuration of HRM practices to which employees are exposed in their work environment should contribute to increase their likelihood of displaying a HRM value profile consistent with these practices, leading us to propose that (see Figure 1):

Hypothesis 1 Perception of the presence of Ability-Motivation- and Opportunity-enhancing HRM practices should increase employees' likelihood of membership into profiles characterized by matching types of HRM values.

1.4 | Organizational commitment as a key outcome of human resource management values

Supporting desirable job attitudes and behaviors is the core objective of any strategic HRM framework, including the AMO model (e.g., Garg et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2012). In this study, we focus on the role of HRM values on the emergence of organizational commitment, defined as force that binds an employee to a course of action likely to benefit the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). This bond can be underpinned by three distinct mindsets (Meyer & Allen, 1991): (a) an emotional attachment to, identification with, the organization (affective commitment); (b) a feeling of moral obligation toward the organization (normative commitment); and (c) the perceived cost of leaving the organization (continuance commitment). Continuance commitment can be anchored in a lack of alternative employment opportunities (low alternative) as well as in the fear of losing too much by leaving the organization (high sacrifice) (Meyer et al., 2002).

Beyond being a focal outcome of many HRM systems, commitment is particularly relevant to this study as it has been conceptualized a core facet of employees' professional identity (Meyer et al., 2006), a central component of their motivational orientation at work (Meyer et al., 2004), and a significant driver of performance and retention (Meyer et al., 2002). As such, when considering the internalization of HRM values into employees' professional identity, commitment is likely to represent a focal process whereby HRM system influence job attitudes and behaviors.

Although studies are lacking on the possible links between HRM values and organizational commitment, research evidence has supported the role of different types of work values (e.g., Elizur, 1984; Schwartz, 1992) in the prediction of commitment, although stronger associations are found for affective commitment than for normative and continuance commitment. For instance, affective commitment is positively associated with the extent to which one values self-transcendence and openness to change (Arciniega & González, 2006), with the fit between personal and organizational values (Abbott et al., 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1991), and with cultural values of individualism and power distance (Fischer & Mansell, 2009). Continuance commitment is positively associated with conservative values (Arciniega & González, 2006), with the personal values of obedience, cautiousness, and formality (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and with the cultural value of collectivism (Fischer & Mansell, 2009). Normative commitment is related to the extent to which one values openness to change (Arciniega & González, 2006), with the fit between personal and organizational values (Abbott et al., 2005), with respect for organizational conventions and bottom-line values (Meyer & Allen, 1991), and with the cultural values of collectivism and power distance (Fischer & Mansell, 2009). Thus, despite the lack of research specific to HRM values, prior evidence supports the influence of strong work values on more favorable forms of commitment to the organization (higher affective, and to some extent normative, commitment, and lower continuance commitment). Emerging evidence also suggests that stronger work values tend to result in higher levels of need satisfaction (Busque-Carrier et al., 2021a), which can be seen as a core driver of associations between work characteristics and commitment according to SDT (Deci et al., 2017). These considerations lead us to propose that (see Figure 1):

Hypothesis 2 Profiles characterized by moderate to high levels of HRM values will tend to be associated with higher levels of affective, and to some extent normative commitment, as well as with lower levels of continuous (high sacrifice and low alternative) commitment.

Based on the research literature on personal resources anchored in the job demands-resources model (e.g., Boudrias et al., 2011; Tremblay & Messervey, 2011) and work motivation in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fernet & Austin, 2014), HRM values could possibly hold a dual role as a direct predictor of commitment, and as a moderator of the effects of HRM practices on commitment. Thus, in addition to the direct effect of HRM values profiles on commitment, as a secondary objective, we also examined the possibility that these profiles could moderate the relation between HRM practices and commitment, consistent with the idea that values may influence how employees respond to their environment (Garg et al., 2021). Supporting this assertion, previous research has supported the idea that work values tended to moderate the effects of work characteristics on job attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Meyer et al., 1998; Zhang & Zheng, 2009). The common trend across all of those studies is that values tend to accentuate positively or negatively the relation between work characteristics and commitment, based on the extent to which these values are consistent, or not, with the work characteristic(s) under study. On this basis, we propose that:

Hypothesis 3 The positive relation between HRM practices and organizational commitment (higher affective, and to some extent normative, and lower continuance) will be stronger for employees belonging to profiles characterized by moderate to high levels of HRM values.

2 | METHOD

2.1 | Participants and procedure

The convenience sample used in this study included 1270 French-Canadian employees (46% women) with an average age of 33.81 years (SD = 11.48) and an average tenure of 4.49 years (SD = 4.95) working in different sectors: private (31.9% manufacturing, 32% service) and public (36.1%). Most participants were recruited from 26 Canadian organizations, although a minority of participants also responded on their own to our publicly accessible online questionnaire. Participants recruited from organizations responded to a 30-min survey during working hours, while those recruited online responded to an online 30-min survey at a moment of their own choosing. No incentives were offered to participants, and they could withdraw their consent to participate at any time. However, participating organizations were offered a customized report in regard to their HRM practices, and their employees needs, attitudes and behaviors. This study was approved by the research ethics committee of

the third author's institution. All measures were administered in French, using instruments previously validated in this language. All items are reproduced at the end of the online supplements.

2.2 | Measures

2.2.1 | Human resource management values

Human resource management values were measured with the HRM Values Scale (Drouin Rousseau et al., 2023), developed from the French-Canadian version (Fabi et al., 2015) of the HRM practices scale (Geringer et al., 2002). This 36-item scale assesses the value ascribed to various types of HRM practices grouped based on the AMO framework: (1) ability-enhancing practices (8 items; $\alpha = 0.747$), covering selection (e.g., *A person's ability to perform the technical requirements of the job*) and training-development (e.g., *Improve employees technical job abilities*); (2) motivation-enhancing practices (16 items; $\alpha = 0.834$), covering supervision (e.g., *Acknowledging good performances*), performance appraisal (e.g., *Helping the employee in improving his performance*), compensation (e.g., *Part of the remuneration is based on the knowledge and skills of employees*), and benefits (e.g., *Retirement plan*); (3) opportunity-enhancing practices (12 items; $\alpha = 0.761$), covering work-life balance (e.g., *Having the opportunity to take long-term leave*), communication-participation (e.g., *There is a good communication between different departments*), and job design (e.g., *Having a good job security*). For all items, participants were asked to indicate on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*very low importance*) to 6 (*very high importance*) the degree of importance they ascribed to each HRM practice. The psychometric properties (factor structure, measurement invariance, reliability, and criterion-related validity) of scores on this instrument has been demonstrated by Drouin Rousseau et al. (2023).

2.2.2 | Human resource management practices

The French-Canadian version (Fabi et al., 2015) of the HRM practices scale (Geringer et al., 2002) was used to assess the perception of the presence of various HRM practices. This measure includes the same items used to assess HRM values, also grouped based on the AMO framework: (1) ability-enhancing practices (selection and training and development; 8 items; $\alpha = 0.631$); (2) motivation-enhancing practices (supervision, performance appraisal, compensation and benefits; 16 items; $\alpha = 0.776$); (3) opportunity-enhancing practices (work-life balance, communication and participation and job design; 12 items; $\alpha = 0.503$). Participants were asked to indicate the presence of each practice (yes = 1, no = 0) in their organization. The psychometric properties (validity, reliability) of scores on this instrument have been established in previous studies (Fabi et al., 2015; Mathieu et al., 2016).

2.2.3 | Organizational commitment

The French-Canadian version (Bentein et al., 2005; Stinglhamber et al., 2002) of the short form of Meyer et al.'s (1993, 2019) was used to assess: (1) affective commitment to the organization (3 items; $\alpha = 0.907$; e.g., *I feel attached to this organization*); (2) normative commitment to the organization (3 items; $\alpha = 0.857$; e.g., *I would feel guilty if I left my organization now*); (3) continuance-low alternatives commitment to the organization (3 items; $\alpha = 0.863$; e.g., *I have no other choice than to stay in this organization*); (4) continuance-high sacrifice commitment to the organization (3 items; $\alpha = 0.829$; e.g., *I owe a lot to this organization*). Each item was rated using a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*Totally disagree*) to 6 (*Totally agree*). Previous studies support the reliability and construct validity of this instrument (Bentein et al., 2005; Stinglhamber et al., 2002).

3 | ANALYSES

3.1 | Preliminary analyses

Participants' ratings of organizational commitment were estimated based on a confirmatory factor analytic model including four correlated factors (affective, normative, continuance-high sacrifice and continuance-low alternative). Ratings of HRM values and practices were both represented by a bifactor-CFA model (e.g., Morin et al., 2016) allowing us to estimate the three global factors corresponding to the a priori AMO (ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing) practices, while accounting for the specificity of each type of practice. In these models, each item jointly defined an a priori global (i.e., AMO) and specific (i.e., each practice) factor. Within each type of practice, all factors were set to be orthogonal (uncorrelated) according to typical bifactor specifications (Morin et al., 2016, 2017), but were allowed to correlate across types of practice (i.e., thus

corresponding to the estimation of three bifactor models within a single analysis, one for each set of practices). Furthermore, to account for possible qualitative variations in HRM practice implementation, we tested the invariance of our measures across employment sector (private vs. public sector) in the following sequence (Millsap, 2011): (a) Configural invariance (same measurement model with no added constraints); (b) weak invariance (invariance of the factor loadings); (c) strong invariance (invariance of loadings and intercepts); (d) strict invariance (invariance of loadings, intercepts and uniquenesses); (e) invariance of the latent variances-covariances (invariance of loadings, intercepts, uniquenesses and latent variances-covariances); (f) latent means invariance (invariance of loadings, intercepts, uniquenesses, latent variances-covariances and latent means).

Factor scores were extracted from the bifactor-CFA models and used in the main analyses. Factor scores have the advantage of providing a partial correction for unreliability, preserving the nature of the measurement model, and introducing parsimony to our Latent profile analyses (LPA) (Morin et al., 2017).

These preliminary analyses were conducted in Mplus 8.6 (Muthén & Muthén, 2021) using the maximum likelihood robust (MLR; robust to nonnormality) estimator to estimate the measurement models underlying employees' ratings of HRM values and organizational commitment. However, given the binary nature of HRM practice ratings, we relied on the robust weighted least square estimator (with mean and variance adjusted statistics; WLSMV) to analyze this measure (Finney & DiStefano, 2013). Due to the over sensitivity of the chi square test of exact fit to sample size and minor misspecifications, model fit was assessed using goodness-of-fit indices (Hu & Bentler, 1999): The Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). More precisely, CFI and TLI values $\geq$ 0.90 and RMSEA values $\leq$ 0.08 indicate an acceptable level of model fit, whereas CFI and TLI values $\geq$ 0.95 and RMSEA values $\leq$ 0.06 indicate an excellent level of model fit. Furthermore, well-defined factors are expected ($\geq$0.30; Morin et al., 2020) on either the specific factors (nine HRM practices, values or the four dimensions for organizational commitment) or the global factors (in the case of HRM practices and HRM values: three bundles corresponding to ability-motivation and opportunity), as well as low factor correlations, in order to observe adequate parameter estimates. For measurement invariance, the CFI and TLI indices should not decrease by more than 0.10 and the RMSEA should not increase by more than 0.015 between a model and the previous one to support each type of invariance (Chen, 2007; Marsh et al., 2005).

3.2 | Latent profile analyses

Latent profile analyses were conducted in Mplus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2021) using the MLR estimator, 3000 sets of random starts, 100 iterations, and 100 final optimizations (Meyer & Morin, 2016). Latent profile analyses solutions including 1–8 profiles were estimated, allowing the mean and variance of the profile indicators (the three HRM values) to vary across profiles (Morin & Litalien, 2019). The optimal number of profiles was determined by considering the theoretical conformity, heuristic value, and statistical adequacy of all solutions, as well as statistical indicators (Marsh et al., 2009; Morin & Litalien, 2019): the Aikaike Information Criterion (AIC), the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), the Consistent AIC (CAIC), the sample-adjusted BIC (SABIC), the adjusted Lo et al. (2001) likelihood ratio test (aLMR), and the Bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT). A lower value on the AIC, BIC, CAIC, and SABIC indicate a better fit of the model, whereas the statistical significance of the aLMR and BLRT support the solution to which it is associated relative to a solution including one less profile (McLachlan & Peel, 2000; Meyer & Morin, 2016). As these indices are all influenced by sample size, they sometimes suggest adding profiles even when none are required (Marsh et al., 2009). When this happens, the first plateau in a graphical representation of the value of the AIC, BIC, CAIC, and SABIC as a function of the number of profiles (i.e., elbow plot) helps locate the optimal solution (Petras & Masyn, 2010). Finally, we report the entropy as an indicator of classification accuracy (ranging from 0 to 1), although this indicator should not be considered to determine the optimal number of profiles.

3.3 | Latent profile analyses with predictors and outcomes

Once the optimal number of profiles was determined, the three sets of HRM practices were included in the final solution as predictors of profile membership via a multinomial logistic regression function. Differences in outcomes levels across profiles were estimated using the weighted comparison approach developed for LPA by Bolck et al. (2004) and implemented using the Auxiliary (BCH) function (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2014).

3.4 | Tests of moderation

The moderating role of the HRM values profiles on the relation between the HRM practices and organizational commitment mindsets was assessed following procedures

outlined by McLarnon and O'Neill (2018). We estimated a model in which the regressions linking the HRM practices and the outcomes were allowed to differ across profiles and compared (using the AIC, BIC, CAIC and SABIC) this model to one in which these regressions were constrained to equality across profiles.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Preliminary analyses

The results from our preliminary analyses are reported in Tables S1 (model fit), S2 (parameter estimates from the HRM values model), S3 (parameter estimates from the HRM practices model), S4 (parameter estimates from the organizational commitment model) of the online supplements and S5 (measurement invariance across employment sector). All of these models had an adequate fit data (HRM Values: χ^2 = 1449.316; df = 511; CFI = 0.924; TLI = 0.907; RMSEA = 0.039; HRM practices: χ^2 = 1687.462; df = 511; CFI = 0.940; TLI = 0.926; RMSEA = 0.043; Organizational commitment: χ^2 = 95.224; df = 48; CFI = 0.991; TLI = 0.987; RMSEA = 0.028), adequate parameters estimates (high factor loadings, item uniquenesses and factor correlations), and resulted in well-defined and reliable factors: (a) ability-enhancing values ($\omega^{[1]}$ = 0.961); (b) motivation-enhancing values (ω = 0.991); (c) opportunity-enhancing values (ω = 0.982); (d) ability-enhancing practices (ω = 0.961); (e) motivation-enhancing practices (ω = 0.995); (f) opportunity-enhancing practices (ω = 0.989); (g) affective commitment (ω = 0.967); (h) normative commitment (ω = 0.947); (i) continuance-high sacrifice commitment (ω = 0.951); (j) continuance-low alternatives commitment (ω = 0.938). Measurement invariance was supported across employment sector (private vs. public), as there is no substantial (more than 0.10) decrease on the CFI and TLI, and no substantial increase (more than 0.015) on the RMSEA. Factor score correlations are reported in Table S6 of the online supplements, are consistent with the distinctive nature of all variables, and highlight associations consistent with our expectations.

4.2 | Latent profile analyses: Human resource management values

The results from the LPA solutions are reported in Table 1 and fail to converge on any specific solution. The elbow plot associated with these results is presented in Figure S1 of the online supplements and reveals a plateau after the 4-profile solution. The 4-profile solution, as well as the adjacent 3- and 5-profile solutions were thus more thoroughly inspected. This inspection supported the value of adding a fourth (corresponding to the second profile represented in Figure 2), but not a fifth (this addition resulted in the estimation of two similar profiles), profile. The 4-profile solution was thus retained. This solution resulted in a high classification accuracy

TABLE 1 Results from the latent profile analysis models of human resource management (HRM) values sets (ability, motivation, opportunity).

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy	aLMR	BLRT
1 Profile	−4783.117	6	1.4854	9578.234	9614.805	9608.805	9589.746	Na	Na	Na
2 Profiles	−4266.831	13	1.6918	8559.663	8638.899	8625.899	8584.606	0.718	0.002	<0.001
3 Profiles	−3934.150	20	1.6803	7908.300	8030.201	8010.201	7946.673	0.784	0.008	<0.001
4 Profiles	−3757.152	27	1.5210	7568.304	7732.870	7705.870	7620.108	0.803	0.003	<0.001
5 Profiles	−3645.879	34	1.1928	7359.758	7566.990	7532.990	7424.993	0.842	<0.001	<0.001
6 Profiles	−3590.216	41	1.1733	7262.432	7512.330	7471.330	7341.098	0.806	0.003	<0.001
7 Profiles	−3551.416	48	1.1725	7198.832	7491.395	7443.395	7290.928	0.822	0.078	<0.001
8 Profiles	−3511.018	55	1.1225	7132.036	7467.264	7412.264	7237.562	0.822	<0.001	<0.001
Tests of moderation										
With moderation	−12539.238	116	1.1084	25,310.476	26,120.166	25,904.166	25,535.699	0.801	Na	Na
Without moderation	−12592.634	59	1.0313	25,303.268	25,664.231	25,605.231	25,417.822	0.805	Na	Na

Abbreviations: #fp, number of free parameters; ABIC, sample size adjusted BIC; AIC, Akaïke information criteria; aLMR, adjusted Lo-Mendel-Rubin likelihood ratio test; BIC, Bayesian information criteria; BLRT, bootstrap likelihood ratio test; CAIC, constant AIC; LL, model loglikelihood; scaling, scaling correction factor associated with robust maximum likelihood estimates.

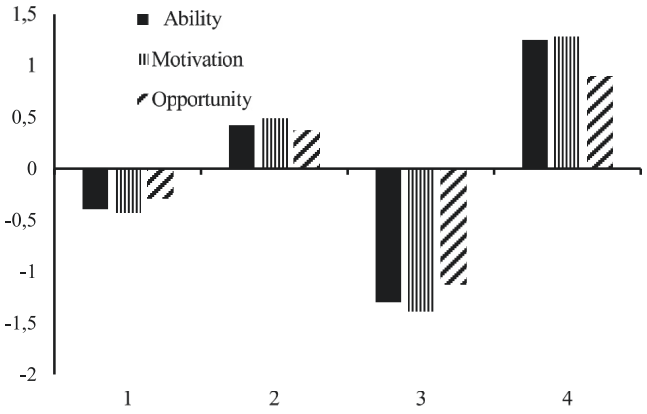

FIGURE 2 4-Profile solution of HRM Values. Profile indicators are factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; Profile 1: Low levels of HRM values; Profile 2: Moderate levels of HRM values; Profile 3: Very low levels of HRM values; Profile 4: High levels of HRM values. HPM, human resource management.

(entropy = 0.803). These profiles are represented in Figure 2, and parameter estimates are reported in Table S6 of the online supplements.

These profiles differed mainly quantitatively (matching levels of values across all three sets of practices). Profile 1 describes employees who hold *Low levels of HRM values* and represents 39,72% of the sample. Profile 2 describes employees who hold *Moderate levels of HRM values* and represents 36,69% of the population. Profile 3 describes employees who hold *Very low levels of HRM values* and represents 11,18% of the sample. Finally, Profile 4 describes employees who hold *High levels of HRM values* and represents 12,41% of the sample.

4.3 | Predictors of human resource management values profiles

Predictive results are reported in Table 2. Perception of the presence of ability-enhancing practices was associated with a higher likelihood of membership into Profile 4 (*High levels of HRM values*) relative to Profiles 2 (*Moderate levels of HRM values*) and 3 (*Very low levels of HRM values*), as well as into Profile 1 (*Low levels of HRM values*) relative to Profile 3 (*Very low levels of HRM values*). Perception of the presence of motivation-enhancing practices was associated with a higher likelihood of membership into Profile 2 (*Moderate levels of HRM values*) relative to Profile 1 (*Low levels of HRM values*). Perception of the presence of opportunity-enhancing practices was not associated with profile membership. These results generally support Hypothesis 1 in relation to ability-enhancing practices, partially

TABLE 2 Results from multinomial logistic regressions for the effects of the presence of practices predictors on profile membership.

	Profile 1 versus 4		Profile 2 versus 4		Profile 3 versus 4		Profile 1 versus 3		Profile 2 versus 3		Profile 1 versus 2	
Predictors	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**	**Coef. (SE)**	**OR**
Ability	−0.216 (0.173)	0.805	−0.383 (0.177)*	0.682	−0.715 (0.236)**	0.489	0.499 (0.208)*	1.646	0.332 (0.196)	1.393	0.167 (0.125)	1.182
Motivation	−0.253 (0.174)	0.776	0.016 (0.183)	1.016	−0.283 (0.224)	0.753	0.030 (0.192)	1.031	0.299 (0.184)	1.348	−0.269 (0.130)*	0.764
Opportunity	−0.008 (0.153)	0.992	0.113 (0.157)	1.120	0.021 (0.215)	1.021	−0.028 (0.197)	0.972	0.092 (0.185)	1.097	−0.121 (0.120)	0.886

Note: The coefficients and OR reflect the effects of the predictors on the likelihood of membership into the first listed profile relative to the second listed profile; Indicators of Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity are factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; Profile 1: Low levels of HRM values; Profile 2: Moderate levels of HRM values; Profile 3: Very low levels of HRM values; Profile 4: High levels of HRM values.

Abbreviations: Ability, Ability-enhancing sets of practices; Motivation, Motivation-enhancing sets of practices; Opportunity, Opportunity-enhancing sets of practices; OR, Odds Ratio; SE, Standard Error of the coefficient.

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$.

supports Hypothesis 1 in relation to motivation-enhancing practices and fails to support Hypothesis 1 in relation to opportunity-enhancing practices.

4.4 | Human resource management values profiles and organizational commitment

Outcome comparisons are reported in Table 3. Affective commitment was the highest in Profile 4 (*High levels of HRM values*) followed by Profile 2 (*Moderate levels of HRM values*) and were the lowest in Profiles 3 (*Very low level of HRM values*) and 1 (*Low level of HRM values*), which did not differ significantly from one another. Continuance-low alternative commitment was the lowest in Profile 2 (*Moderate levels of HRM values*) and 4 (*High levels of HRM values*), which did not differ significantly from one another, and the highest in Profiles 3 (*Very low levels of HRM values*) and 1 (*Low levels of HRM values*), which also did not differ significantly from one another. No differences between profiles were found for normative and continuance-high sacrifice commitment. These results support Hypothesis 2 for affective commitment and continuance-low alternative commitment, but fail to support this hypothesis for normative commitment and continuance-high sacrifice commitment.

4.5 | Moderating role of human resource management values profiles

As shown in the bottom section of Table 1, our results support the model without moderation, which resulted in lower values on all information criteria relative to the moderation model and are thus inconsistent with Hypothesis 3. However, these analyses suggest a direct effect of HRM practices on commitment. More precisely, all specific sets of HRM practices were positively associated with affective (Ability: $b = 0.173$, s. e. $= 0.039$, $p < 0.01$; Motivation: $b = 0.188$, s. e. $= 0.042$, $p < 0.01$; Opportunity: $b = 0.358$, s. e. $= 0.038$, $p < 0.01$) and normative (Ability: $b = 0.131$, s. e. $= 0.038$, $p < 0.01$; Motivation: $b = 0.106$, s. e. $= 0.041$, $p < 0.05$; Opportunity: $b = 0.205$, s. e. $= 0.036$, $p < 0.01$) commitment. Opportunity-enhancing practices were also associated with lower continuance-low alternatives commitment ($b = -0.158$, s. e. $= 0.036$, $p < 0.01$), whereas ability-enhancing practices were associated with higher continuance-high sacrifice commitment ($b = 0.102$, s. e. $= 0.039$, $p < 0.01$).

5 | DISCUSSION

This study sought to contribute to our understanding of the unique role played by HRM values in the interplay between HRM practices and employees' commitment to their organization. We first identified four profiles differing quantitatively from one another in relation to the extent to which they valued different sets of HRM practices. More precisely, these profiles attributed very low levels (Profile 3), low levels (Profile 1), moderate levels (Profile 2), and high levels (Profile 4) of values to all three sets of practices. We then more specifically examined the extent to which employees' perceptions of the HRM practices implemented in their workplace could influence their likelihood of membership into these profiles, whether these different profiles differed in their levels of commitment, and whether the relations between employees' perceptions of HRM practices and their levels of commitment differed across profiles. We now turn our

TABLE 3 Results from the final latent profile analytic solution of the human resource management (HRM) values 4-profile solution with organizational commitment.

	Profile 1		Profile 2		Profile 3		Profile 4		Significant
Outcome	M	CI	M	CI	M	CI	M	CI	Differences
Affective commitment	−0.114	[−0.208; −0.020]	0.075	[−0.023; 0.173]	−0.214	[−0.388; −0.040]	0.351	[0.159; 0.543]	4 > 2 > 1 = 3
Continuance commitment - low alternatives	0.065	[−0.019; 0.149]	−0.087	[−0.169; −0.005]	0.194	[0.008; 0.380]	−0.124	[−0.291; 0.043]	1 = 3 > 2 = 4
Continuance commitment - high sacrifice	0.010	[−0.072; 0.092]	−0.031	[−0.115; 0.053]	0.066	[−0.120; 0.252]	0.006	[−0.166; 0.178]	1 = 2 = 3 = 4
Normative commitment	−0.026	[−0.110; 0.058]	−0.011	[−0.101; 0.079]	0.030	[−0.141; 0.201]	0.098	[−0.078; 0.274]	1 = 2 = 3 = 4

Note: CI: 95% confidence interval; Indicators of commitment are factor scores with a standard deviation of 1 and a mean of 0; M: Mean; Profile 1: Low levels of HRM values; Profile 2: Moderate levels of HRM values; Profile 3: Very low levels of HRM values; Profile 4: High levels of HRM values.

attention to the theoretical and managerial implications of these contributions.

5.1 | Theoretical implications

The main contribution of this study lies in the explicit examination of employees' profiles of HRM values, a construct that has been largely ignored in HRM research (Garg et al., 2021). Yet, the extent to which employees value, or not, different sets of HRM practices is likely to impact the efficacy of these practices in a way that remains to be empirically determined. This echoes previous research based on the attribution theory (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Hewett et al., 2018; Nishii et al., 2008) and brings a new understanding on how individual characteristics (i.e., values) can vary from one employee to another and can shape the reaction to specific HRM practices. Our results suggest that distinct types of employees essentially ascribe the same value (very low, low, moderate, or high) to all three sets of HRM practices. These results are aligned with Garg et al. (2021), showing that the extent to which employees value different types of HRM practices differs widely across employees. It was concerning to note that Profile 1 (Low) was the most prevalent (39.72%), as employees corresponding to this profile were more likely to display lower affective commitment and higher continuance (low alternative) commitment than those corresponding to the Moderate (36.69%) or High (12.41%) profiles. Our findings also suggest that HRM values played a role complementary to that of HRM practices (Han et al., 2020; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010), as the effects of HRM values profiles on employees' commitment were independent from those of their perception of the present of different sets of practices. Therefore, HRM values seem to represent a novel psychological factor likely to contribute to our understanding on the effectiveness of HRM systems. From a practical perspective, these results suggest that helping employees to see the value of these practices may help maximise their efficacy.

Consistent with the AMO view that employees are exposed to HRM systems containing parts that are not necessarily equivalent in their impact (Jiang et al., 2012), our results shed light on which sets of HRM practices were most likely to facilitate internalization among employees. Although we hypothesized that all three sets of practices would increase employees' membership into profiles characterized by moderate to high levels of HRM values, our results rather showed that only ability-enhancing practices were associated with a higher likelihood of membership into the most desirable profile (High). This observation is consistent with previous results demonstrating the benefits of efficient selection, training, and development practices (Huselid, 1995; Rynes et al., 2002). This does not mean that other types of HRM practices had no effect, simply that their effects on the internalization of the value of HRM practices disappeared once employees' perceptions of all three sets of practices were jointly considered. Our results thus suggest that perception of the presence of ability-enhancing practices may represent a core HRM-related driver of employees' HRM values. Although these results corroborate variable-centered results (Kundu & Gahlawat, 2018) showing that not all HRM values have similar effects, they provide the first empirical evidence that each set of practices differentially relates to profiles differing in their level of HRM values.

Our findings related to the role played by employees' perceptions of the presence of each set of practice in relation to their commitment to the organization further highlight the differential role of these practices. Although all three sets of practices were positively related to employees' affective and normative commitment to their organization, only employees' perceptions of being exposed to opportunity-enhancing practices were associated with a reduction of their sense of being stuck in their organization (i.e., continuance-low alternatives commitment). In contrast, employees' perceptions of the presence of ability-enhancing practices were associated with stronger perceptions that leaving their employment would represent a loss for them (continuance-high sacrifice commitment), in a way that is consistent with the nature of these practices designed to help employees grow in their work role. It would thus seem important for AMO research to maintain a distinct focus on all three set of HRM practices, rather than to lump them all together, making it impossible to capture their unique and complementary role. From a practical perspective, although our results show that particular attention should be placed on ability-enhancing practices, they also indicate that employers should not minimize the importance of motivation- and opportunity-enhancing practices, as these sets of practices are also related to more desirable forms of commitment to the organization.

Our results also supported the importance of considering the role of HRM value profiles, by demonstrating that employees with moderate to high levels of HRM values displayed higher levels of affective commitment and lower levels of continuance commitment (*low alternative*) relative to those with low to very low levels of HRM values. Thus, beyond their perception of the presence of different sets of HRM practices, employees who have internalized the value of these practices were the most likely to be affectively attached to their organization, and the least likely to feel stuck in their

employment. These results are aligned with the assumptions of various theories focusing on work values (e.g., Elizur, 1984; Schwartz, 1992) in supporting the benefits of stronger values in relation to more desirable forms of commitment (Abbott et al., 2005; Fischer & Mansell, 2009). This last set of results further reinforce the importance for organizations to be attentive to, and try to nurture, the extent to which employees value different sets of HRM practices, as this valorization seems able to contribute to improve the quality of the bond shared by these employees with their organization. In this regard, our result expands upon commitment theory by suggesting that HRM values could represent one basis upon which positive forms of commitment can be developed (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002).

5.2 | Limitations and future directions

Our study presents some limitations. First, we solely relied on self-report measures, increasing the risk of social desirability and self-assessment biases. More precisely, employees could have answered that all practices were important to them, as they perceive giving an importance to HRM practices in their organization is a socially desirable action (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987). This could be a way to be seen as a "good employee", that highly values the HRM practices their organization implements for them. To alleviate these concerns, it would be useful to consider objective and informant-based measures of work investment (retention, performance, etc.). Second, we relied on a cross-sectional design, making it impossible to establish the directionality of the associations, or the temporal stability of our profiles. Because change in HRM values is likely to occur as a result of changes in employees' life circumstances or work experiences, longitudinal studies would be particularly relevant (Jin & Rounds, 2012) to examine when, and why, changes occur. Furthermore, a longitudinal study design would help clarify the hierarchical nature of HRM values in the state-trait continuum (Luthans et al., 2007), to better understand if HRM values are a dispositional stable trait (e.g., personality trait) or a contextual state-like construct (e.g., open to change, malleable). Third, HRM practices were the only predictors of interest in this study. Future research should examine how additional organizational (e.g., job demands and resources) and individual (e.g., autonomous and controlled motivation) factors relate to these profiles. Likewise, it would be interesting to integrate other job attitudes (e.g., work satisfaction) and behavioral (e.g., job performance, absenteeism, turnover) outcomes to better understand the implications of these profiles. Moreover, as demonstrated previously (Beer, 1981; Scott & Einstein, 2001), future studies should investigate qualitative differences in the implementation of HRM practices, as each practice can be implemented with different intentions and perceived as responding to various motivations. The intentions ascribed to each HRM practice might, in and of itself, yield to different reactions among employees (as stated in the attribution theory; e.g., Hewett et al., 2018; Nishii et al., 2008; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). In this regard, it would seem important for future research to seek to empirically differentiate between the role played by HRM values and that played by attributions made by employees about the intentionality of different HRM practices. Lastly, our results are limited to a single convenience sample of French-Canadian employees which was not collected in order to provide us a way to clearly assess how our results could differ based on industry sectors. As discussed by Ostroff and Bowen (2016), organizational characteristics (e.g., type of industries, countries, cultures) are important to consider as they often can explain much of the qualitative variation in HRM practice implementation. It would thus seem important for future investigations to assess whether and how these profiles and results generalize across different industries, countries, and cultures.

5.3 | Practical implications

Our results have practical implications likely to guide employers in the strategic implementation of HRM practices. First, our results highlighted that the reliance on ability-enhancing practices was most likely to contribute to increase employees valuing of all types of HRM practices. This suggests that organizations could benefit from implementing rigorous procedures focused on the recruitment, selection, socialization, integration, and ongoing training of their employees (Cossette, 2019). Although efficient procedures should be implemented from the start in any recruitment and onboarding process, current employees should not be neglected either, as they are also likely to benefit from proper and widely accessible development and training opportunities (Kaya et al., 2010). These procedures should also focus on highlighting the benefits of HRM practices for employees in a transparent manner, rather than simply forcing them to participate in activities seen as only remotely relevant to their work (Deci & Ryan, 2000), as this is likely to contribute to increase the value employees will ascribe to HRM practices, as well as their commitment.

Second, our results also highlighted that all three types of practices carried benefits in terms of commitment. It would thus seem desirable for organizations to routinely conduct an audit of their HRM practices to ensure their efficacy and their value for employees.

Considering that managers are in charge of giving life to HRM practices, involving them in the development and refinement of the HRM systems is also critical, as they are most likely to determine the ways in which employees will be exposed to these practices (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). This strategy also implies providing managers with training, support and resources (Purcell et al., 2003) in the identification of HRM values, and in the implementation of optimal sets of HRM practices (Hutchinson & Purcell, 2008). However, employees should also have a decisive role to play in the monitoring and refinement of HRM systems (Han et al., 2020; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). Indeed, our results suggest that there are important benefits to HRM practices that are clearly defined and understood, as well as readily accessible information about their benefits (Delery, 1998). Meeting these conditions and capitalizing on employees' volition rather than external constraints (Deci & Ryan, 2000) should help them internalize these HRM practices and, in turn, nurture more desirable forms of commitment.

Lastly, as managers share a tendency to think about employees in terms of categories rather than associations among variables (Hofmans et al., 2021), our results suggest that it might be relatively easy to identify subpopulations of employees based on the (very low, low, moderate, or high) extent to which they value HRM practices. This identification might be used to guide the development of person-centered interventions, perhaps capitalizing on employees corresponding to the High value profiles as guides, or coaches, for those corresponding to the more "at risk" profiles. This approach might also be used by managers to identify employees who might maximally benefit from training and development.

6 | CONCLUSION

Our study highlights the relevance of HRM values for our understanding of the effectiveness of any type of HRM system, as well as the unique and complementary role of the three sets of HRM practices outlined in the AMO framework. Our person-centered approached suggests that employees tend to value all three sets of practices to the same extent, while also highlighting the distinct effects of their perception of the presence of these three sets of practices. Our results further suggest that efficient sets of HRM practices might influence the development of more desirable types of commitment to the organization in two complementary ways: First by increasing the extent to which they value these practices, and second by directly influencing their commitment. We hope that these results will encourage researchers to further examine the mechanisms underpinning these various associations, as well as organizations to adopt a more comprehensive view of the complex links between HRM systems, values, and outcomes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Preparation of this paper was supported by grants from the *Fonds de Recherche du Québec—Société et Culture* (2019-SE1-252542) and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (435-2018-0368).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

None of the authors have any conflict of interest to declare.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Research data are not shared.

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ENDNOTE

[1] Omega (ω) coefficients of composite reliability were calculated from the model standardized parameter estimates (McDonald, 1970).

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How to cite this article: Drouin-Rousseau, S., Morin, A. J. S., Fernet, C., Austin, S., & Fabi, B. (2024). A person-centered perspective on employees' human resource management values and their implication for organizational commitment. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences / Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1002/cjas.1754