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On the nature and covariates of workaholism profiles: A generalizability study across distinct types of employees

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Abstract

We used a person-centered approach to identify the profiles of workaholism observed in six samples, including 12 subsamples, of employees ($N = 7944$). These profiles were defined while considering workers' global levels of workaholism, together with their specific levels of motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral workaholism. We also considered the extent to which these profiles and their relations with covariates (work-family conflict, harmonious passion, and obsessive passion) generalized across all subsamples. Our results revealed a total of five profiles (*Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Normative*, and *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*). Systematically, the *Normative* profile was the most prevalent (43.7% to 63.2% across subsamples), whereas the *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* profile was the least prevalent (0.4% to

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

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8.9%). The *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* profile presented the highest levels of obsessive passion and work–family conflict, and the lowest levels of harmonious passion. Beyond their theoretical implications for research on workaholism, these results highlight how workaholism has highly similar implications across contexts.

KEYWORDS

generalizability, latent profile analyses, person-centered approach, work passion, workaholism, work–family balance

INTRODUCTION

Workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008) has multiple drawbacks for organizational and individual functioning (e.g., Clark et al., 2016; van Beek et al., 2011), although not all forms of workaholism seem to be equally undesirable. Schaufeli, Shimazu, and Taris (2009) initially conceptualized workaholism as two components: working excessively (WE; the behavioral facet of workaholism, involving devoting a substantial time and effort to work at the expense of other life domains) and working compulsively (WC; the emotional and motivational facets of workaholism, and involving a persistent obsession with work), operationalized through the Dutch Work Addiction Scale (DUWAS). Research has reported differentiated relations between these dimensions of workaholism and numerous covariates (Barber & Santuzzi, 2015; Huyghebaert et al., 2018). It has also showed that drawbacks were strengthened when employees jointly experienced high levels of WE and WC (Gillet et al., 2017).

Recently, Clark et al. (2020) proposed a more comprehensive representation of workaholism, operationalized through the Multidimensional Workaholism Scale (MWS) and encompassing four facets: (a) an excessive involvement in work (behavioral), (b) an internal urge to work (motivational), (c) negative emotions when not working (emotional), and (d) persistent thoughts about work (cognitive). Relative to this more recent operationalization, the DUWAS thus blends multiple facets (e.g., emotional and motivational) into the WC component and fails to account for the arguably important cognitive component of workaholism. Moreover, worrisome psychometric results have been reported in relation to scores obtained on the DUWAS, including low levels of scale score reliability (e.g., Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009) and failure to support the expected bidimensional structure of this questionnaire (e.g., Andreassen et al., 2014). In contrast, Clark et al. (2020) supported the four-dimensional structure of the MWS, showed that all four components were positively correlated but not redundant, and demonstrated that these components all shared meaningfully differentiated associations with the WE and WC facets of the DUWAS, as well as with a variety of covariates.

Research using the DUWAS and MWS has also demonstrated that workaholism can sometimes be represented and experienced as a single global dimension (Sandrin, Gillet, Fernet, Depint-Rouault, et al., 2019; Xu & Li, 2021). This global representation is based on the strong correlations reported between the different workaholism components assessed in the DUWAS

(i.e., WE and WC; Huyghebaert et al., 2018) and MWS (i.e., motivational, behavioral, emotional, and cognitive workaholism; Clark et al., 2020), and by the fact that relations with covariates are stronger when scholars rely on a global workaholism score (Taris et al., 2012). However, the behavioral, motivational, emotional, and cognitive dimensions of workaholism are also considered to be independent of each other (Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009; Xu & Li, 2021), and past research has demonstrated that these components shared unique relations with covariates (Clark et al., 2020; Huyghebaert et al., 2018). To account for this duality, research has recently shown that workaholism, as assessed by the DUWAS or MWS, was better operationalized through a bifactor model accounting for the global (G; common to the workaholism experience across components) and specific (S; specific to each component and not explained by the global experience) nature of workaholism (Gillet et al., 2018; Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2023; Xu & Li, 2021).

Across conceptualizations, workaholism components have never been considered mutually exclusive (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009). Indeed, employees naturally behave in different ways, so that all of them are likely to have their own workaholism profile. Unfortunately, research on workaholism has thus far primarily adopted a variable-centered approach, focused on the isolated, additive, or interactive associations between workaholism components and covariates, and assuming these relations to generalize to the whole sample. Indeed, variable-centered approaches consider all individuals to be part of the same population and that findings can be captured by a single set of “average” parameters. Via the adoption of a person-centered approach, the present study seeks to address this limitation. Indeed, beyond acknowledging that individual employees can jointly experience different types of workaholism (Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009; Xu & Li, 2021), recent person-centered investigations have investigated how the different dimensions of workaholism combine within distinct profiles of workers (Gillet et al., 2017; Rouxel et al., 2023). However, person-centered research is cumulative, so that multiple studies are needed to differentiate the central profiles identified in all situations, the additional ones that only emerge in certain situations, and the idiosyncratic profiles linked to specific sample characteristics (Meyer & Morin, 2016).

More specifically, a person-centered approach seeks to identify subpopulations of employees with qualitatively different profiles of workaholism. By considering the unique configurations of workaholism present among distinct profiles of employees, this approach should help us better understand the optimal and suboptimal workaholism profiles for workers and their organizations. Moreover, rather than assuming that workaholism components will necessarily be high or low, a person-centered approach can identify profiles with moderate (or moderately high or low) levels. An additional advantage of this approach is that person-centered results correspond to our natural tendency to consider workers as members of different categories (person-centered) rather than to examine complex relations between dimensions (variable-centered; Morin et al., 2011). Our findings may thus have significant implications for practice at a time when organizations are trying to find new ways of maintaining and even improving workers' motivation, performance, and well-being. For example, identifying the covariates of workaholism profiles allows us to test the convergent validity of the workaholism profiles and its generalizability across the subsamples and samples of employees considered in this study. By providing evidence of generalizability, we seek to inform research in relation to the nature and covariates of workaholism profiles, and to guide practice by highlighting whether generic interventions are likely to yield similar benefits for different types of workers.

Adopting a person-centered approach, Schaufeli, Bakker, et al. (2009) identified four profiles among a sample of medical residents: workaholics (high WE and WC), nonworkaholics (low WE and WC), excessive employees (moderately high WE and moderately low WC), and compulsive employees (moderately low WE and moderately high WC). More recently, Gillet et al. (2017) also detected four workaholism profiles among two different samples of employees from different sectors, although their profiles demonstrated matching configurations across indicators: Very Low profile (very low WE and WC), Moderately Low profile (moderately low WE and WC), Moderately High profile (moderately high WE and WC), and Very High profile (very high WE and WC). Although other person-centered studies have examined how workaholism dimensions combine (Gillet et al., 2018; Rouxel et al., 2023), many of those investigations included variables not limited to workaholism to define the profiles (e.g., work engagement: Inanen et al., 2014), precluding the detection of the unique effects of workaholism dimensions in profile definition. Despite their theoretical and empirical value, these studies pursue different objectives than those of the present research, which are to specifically assess the various configurations, or profiles, or workaholism present among diverse samples of employees. In this context, it is critical to limit profile definition to focal variables (i.e., workaholism components) to be able to clearly assess the unique role of these components in profile definition.

Moreover, most previous studies (e.g., Gillet et al., 2017; Inanen et al., 2014) have neglected the G/S nature of workaholism. As demonstrated by Morin, Boudrias, et al. (2016), Morin et al. (2017), this last limitation tends to lead to the erroneous identification of profiles displaying similar levels across all (e.g., high or low on all dimensions, as in Gillet et al., 2017). To address this limitation, Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022) relied on a bifactor operationalization of the DUWAS and identified four profiles: (a) Low G/S Workaholism, (b) Average G/S Workaholism, (c) Low G- and Average S-Workaholism, and (d) High G- and Average S-Workaholism. Unfortunately, these results have yet to be replicated and expanded to the more comprehensive representation of workaholism proposed by Clark et al. (2020).

The present person-centered study seeks to contribute to research on workaholism in three important ways. First, we seek to identify distinct subpopulations of workers presenting different configurations of G-workaholism and S-behavioral, S-motivational, S-emotional, and S-cognitive workaholism, without assuming that these configurations will necessarily entail high or low levels across dimensions (e.g., Gillet et al., 2017). Second, we expand upon Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022) findings by considering new covariates to assess the construct validity of these profiles. More precisely, we investigate the implications of workaholism profiles for work–family conflict (WFC) as in Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022) to replicate their findings obtained with the MWS (Clark et al., 2020). In addition, we examine the relations between workaholism profiles and two new covariates closely linked to workaholism: harmonious passion – HP – and obsessive passion – OP (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Tóth-Király et al., 2021). Third, we investigate whether the workaholism profiles will be replicated (i.e., their generalizability) across 12 subsamples of French employees: (a) working onsite or remotely (Sample 1), (b) working full- or part-time (Sample 2), (c) working in the private or public sector (Sample 3), (d) enrolled in a permanent or temporary position (Sample 4), (e) with a high (experienced employees) or low (novice employees) tenure in their position (Sample 5), and (f) with or without a supervisory role (Sample 6). In doing so, our aim is not to *explore* sample differences but rather to conduct a robust test of the generalizability of workaholism profiles across samples differing meaningfully from one another.

THEORETICAL PERSON-CENTERED SCENARIOS

Beyond replication and keeping in mind the importance of disaggregating the G/S components of workaholism, a core challenge for scholars trying to better understand how different workaholism dimensions combine is linked to the absence of theoretical anchoring concerning the nature of these profiles and their underlying psychological mechanisms. From a purely empirical perspective, we can see that despite relying on different methods, measures, and samples, currently available evidence suggests three to four profiles, with the three most frequently identified profiles characterized by a low, moderate, and high workaholism configuration across indicators. Yet, these profiles have not yet been theoretically grounded. Inspired by these previous empirical findings, we now propose three theoretically-driven scenarios to guide future research in this area.

A first scenario focuses on *Unplugged* employees, displaying low G/S levels of workaholism. These employees do not experience an internal pressure to drive them to intensely engage in their work (i.e., low S-motivational workaholism) in a way that goes beyond their job requirements (i.e., low S-behavioral workaholism) (Clark et al., 2020). Without this pressure, they are thus far less likely to experience frustration when unable to work (i.e., low S-emotional workaholism) and are more likely to maintain a mental distance from their work (i.e., low S-cognitive workaholism). On the one hand, some of these employees can feel exposed to an under stimulating work environment, lacking interesting challenging opportunities (Crawford et al., 2010; Gillet et al., 2024; LePine et al., 2005). On the other hand, they might also feel exposed to high levels of job demands that hinder their ability to attain their personal and professional goals (Collewaert et al., 2016; Gillet et al., 2024). Over time, they might have learned that these demands are impossible to overcome without expanding more of their personal resources (Demerouti & Peeters, 2018; Hobfoll, 2011) than they can expect to be able to replenish on their own or at work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Petrou & Xanthopoulou, 2021). As a result, these employees might have decided to adopt a healthy distance from their work as a way to protect themselves against the depletion of their personal resources (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022). However, this distancing may lead these employees experience feelings of boredom (Bruning & Campion, 2018) and social isolation at work (Lazazzara et al., 2020), thus leading to adjustment difficulties.

The second scenario characterizes *Plugged In* employees, displaying high G/S levels of workaholism. This high workaholism is likely to be primarily driven by internal pressures (i.e., high S-motivational workaholism; Clark et al., 2020). For this reason, an intense work involvement (i.e., high S-behavioral workaholism) may help reduce feelings of guilt, shame, and anxiety, while improving self-esteem (Gillet et al., 2016). However, actions might also, to a lesser extent, be driven by external challenges (Crawford et al., 2010; Gillet et al., 2024; LePine et al., 2005), such as gaining prestige, admiration, or support (Sandrin, Gillet, Fernet, Leloup, & Depin-Rouault, 2019), leading these employees to invest significant efforts in activities leading to recognition, pay rises, and career advancement (Endriulaitienė & Morkevičiūtė, 2020). However, these employees are also unlikely to feel forced to engage in their work at such an extreme level without feeling exposed to a substantial level of hindering job demands (Crawford et al., 2010; LePine et al., 2005). Gillet et al. (2024) showed that the dual exposure to challenge and hindrance demands was particularly problematic in terms of functioning.

This result raised interesting questions about the true benefits of challenges (LePine et al., 2005), especially when they occur in combination with high levels of hindrances. *Plugged In* employees might thus display high levels of G/S levels of workaholism because they face too

many hindrances likely to interfere with their ability to meet challenges (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Gillet et al., 2024). These hindrances may also interfere with autonomous motivation (i.e., motivated desire, interest, or choice; Ryan & Deci, 2017), and lead to low levels of work engagement and high levels of controlled motivation (i.e., internal and/or external pressures; Ryan & Deci, 2017) and workaholism (van Beek et al., 2011). Indeed, *Plugged In* employees might believe that no reasonable level of effort will be adequate to meet the demands of their work life, leading them to expand resources (Hobfoll, 2011) that could otherwise be used to handle more stimulating challenges (LePine et al., 2005). As a result of this dual exposure to challenging and hindering job demands, *Plugged In* employees come to operate in a state of increased negative activation (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2015), leading them to experience negative emotions (stress and frustration) when unable to work as much as they want (high S-levels of emotional workaholism). This negative activation makes it difficult for them to recover from work even after having physically left the workplace (Hobfoll, 2011), leading them to remain concerned with, and invested in, their work when at home (i.e., high S-cognitive workaholism).

A third scenario characterizes *Moderately Unplugged* employees, displaying average G/S levels of workaholism corresponding to neither an *Unplugged* nor to a *Plugged In* scenario. These individuals are assumed to work within the performance expectations of their organization, do not want to be role models, and generally behave in an acceptable manner. They might be motivated to work primarily for instrumental reasons, may not want to invest themselves in more challenging tasks, and may be lucky enough not to be experiencing any undue external pressure for a more intensive work investment. Put another way, these employees are likely to perceive their work as moderately demanding, without exposing them to particularly threatening or stimulating opportunities (i.e., not particularly challenging nor demanding; Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2022). According to the job demands–resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), these levels of job demands should be easier to incorporate in an ongoing work routine without requiring high levels of adaptation, challenges, and resources. As long as these employees can perceive a good congruence between their values and those advocated by their organization, they will try to maintain this balance and avoid getting involved in other tasks (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022). These individuals should thus be able to allocate their resources, time, and energy across domains in a balanced way, without allowing work to take a disproportionate place in their life (Gillet et al., 2017). This is also consistent with prior person-centered research focusing on different work-related constructs (e.g., Gillet et al., 2019; Morin et al., 2017) which has revealed that for a substantial number of employees, work-related experiences do not involve extreme types of behaviors but are suggestive of a more balanced routine.

A person-centered approach is required to test the validity of these scenarios. However, considering that none of the previous studies used to guide the elaboration of these scenarios has relied on the MWS (Clark et al., 2020), considering that the G/S disaggregation advocated here should help us detect profiles with more obvious qualitative differences (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022), and considering the slightly more distinctive set of profiles identified by Schaufeli, Bakker, et al. (2009), we also expect other profiles with different G/S levels across workaholism dimensions. More specifically, our reliance on a bifactor operationalization of workaholism allows us to achieve a more accurate separation of the variance attributed to G versus S levels of workaholism, and thus to achieve a more accurate understanding of the unique and complementary role of S-facets of workaholism beyond their commonality (G; Gillet, Morin, Huyghebaert-Zouaghi, et al., 2022). Statistically, when applying person-centered

analyses to indicators known to present a G/S structure, Morin, Boudrias, et al. (2016), Morin et al. (2017) clearly demonstrated that relying on profile indicators failing to properly differentiate these G/S components led to the erroneous estimation of profiles characterized by matching levels across indicators (i.e., differing only in G-levels of workaholism, thereby neglecting the unique role played by S-facets). This is what happened in Gillet et al.'s (2017) study, where the four profiles identified (i.e., Very Low, Very High, Moderately High, and Moderately Low) differed only at the G-level. To properly understand the unique role of motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral workaholism, we need to consider their specificity beyond the variance that they share with one another (Morin et al., 2017; Morin, Boudrias, et al., 2016). Supporting this claim, while relying on a proper bifactor operationalization of workaholism, Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022) were able to identify two (out of four) profiles showing clearer G/S differences. Unfortunately, these authors did not rely on Clark et al.'s (2020) multidimensional representation of workaholism, thereby precluding the assessment of the unique role of the motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral facets of workaholism.

Furthermore, Schaufeli, Bakker, et al. (2009) seminal investigation of workaholism profiles also identified two profiles displaying differences across S-facets of workaholism differing from our three main theoretical scenarios. The first one was characterized by moderately high levels of WE and moderately low levels of WC, while the second one displayed moderately low levels of WE and moderately high levels of WC. In line with these findings (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009) and statistical considerations (Morin et al., 2017, Morin, Boudrias, et al., 2016), we expect to identify at least one profile displaying variations across G/S components of workaholism. For instance, one such profile could reflect an internalized form of workaholism (e.g., high cognitive and emotional workaholism, corresponding to the WC component according to Schaufeli, Shimazu, and Taris, 2009), whereas another one might reflect an externalized form of workaholism (e.g., dominated by high levels of behavioral and motivational workaholism, matching the WE component of the same conceptualization).

As mentioned earlier, person-centered research is cumulative (Meyer & Morin, 2016), making it premature to develop a theoretical scenario in relation to these two possible profiles (or to any different configuration of G/S workaholism; e.g., Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022) until we know whether they can be identified in other samples and replicated across samples. Rather, we prefer to limit ourselves to three theoretical scenarios corresponding to the three profiles most frequently identified in previous research (Gillet et al., 2017; Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009) and hope that the scenarios proposed here, together with our results and the inductive nature of person-centered analyses, may serve as an impetus for further theoretical developments. On the basis of these theoretical propositions and empirical findings, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1. At least four profiles will be identified.

Hypothesis 2. Three of these profiles will correspond to our *Plugged In*, *Unplugged*, and *Moderately Unplugged* scenarios.

Hypothesis 3. At least one additional profile displaying a clearer differentiation among the G/S workaholism dimensions will be identified.

PROFILE MEMBERSHIP AND WFC

To replicate prior research on the construct validity of workaholism profiles (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022) while considering our reliance on a more precise G/S operationalization of the MWS, we consider WFC as a covariate of our workaholism profiles. WFC represents a direct consequence of workaholism (Gillet et al., 2017) that itself predicts reduced levels of performance as a result of the toll it takes on employees' personal life, which encourages them to withdraw from their work role to avoid further losses of resources (Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2022).

From the perspective of the conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 2011), we can expect employees displaying high levels of workaholism to devote a great deal of effort, time, and energy to their work (Clark et al., 2020). However, the resources able to maintain this important involvement (van Beek et al., 2011) are limited (Hobfoll, 2011) and may become insufficient to support workers' investment in other professional or personal domains. Possibly to account for this resource depletion, the uncontrollable urge to work of employees displaying high levels of workaholism often leads them to neglect other activities and to experience difficulties establishing healthy boundaries between work and other spheres of life (Clark et al., 2016). Because they are constantly thinking about work, these employees often increase their own workload, which tends to generate frustration and disappointment not only about their work but also about life in general (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022). As a result, these *Plugged In* employees should experience the highest levels of WFC (Gillet et al., 2021).

Matching these theoretical expectations, research reveals that higher G-levels of workaholism or S-levels of motivational, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral workaholism were related to more WFC (Clark et al., 2016; Gillet et al., 2021; Huyghebaert et al., 2018). Results of the few person-centered investigations of workaholism are also relevant. Gillet et al. (2017) found the highest levels of WFC in the Very High profile, followed by the Moderately High profile, then by the Moderately Low profile, and finally by the Very Low profile. More recently, Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., (2022, Study 3) showed that profiles characterized by lower G/S levels of workaholism displayed the lowest levels of WFC. However, this third study was confounded by the inclusion of psychological detachment as an additional profile indicator. Despite this limitation, these results support the utility of considering G/S facets when examining associations between workaholism profiles and WFC.

Taken together, these findings support the idea that the highest levels of WFC should be observed among the *Plugged In* employees, followed by the *Moderately Unplugged* ones, and finally by the *Unplugged* ones. This is also in line with Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al.'s, (2022, Study 3) findings showing that the Average G/S Workaholism profile (corresponding to our *Moderately Unplugged* scenario) was associated with more positive outcomes (e.g., lower WFC and emotional exhaustion) than a *Plugged In* profile and to less adaptive functioning than an *Unplugged* profile. On the one hand, *Unplugged* employees have a limited level of investment in their work and tend to distance themselves from it, making it unlikely that their work will interfere with their family life. As a result, *Unplugged* employees have more time and energy to invest in their family life, and do not feel that their job demands have a negative influence on their family life (Gillet et al., 2017). On the other hand, past research based on self-determination theory (Gillet et al., 2019) has highlighted the positive effects of a balanced approach to work (i.e., close to average and aligned levels of G/S workaholism) rather than an extreme or unbalanced one (e.g., *Plugged In*, *Unplugged*). Indeed, "balance across workaholism facets may stem from a more thoughtful allocation of work resources, which may in turn limit

work-related stress and conflicts, thus leading to more adaptive functioning” (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022, p. 345).

Despite these theoretical considerations and empirical evidences, the dearth of person-centered investigations of workaholism relying on a proper G/S representation of employees' MWS responses makes it hard to formulate precise hypotheses about the characteristics of the expected relations between the profiles and WFC, especially when the S-components of workaholism are considered. However, the limited previous person-centered (Gillet et al., 2017; Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022) and variable-centered (Clark et al., 2020; Huyghebaert et al., 2018) findings allow us to expect that:

Hypothesis 4. Profiles with higher levels of workaholism (*Plugged In*) will display the highest WFC, followed by profiles with average and balanced G/S levels of workaholism (*Moderately Unplugged*), and finally by profiles with lower levels of workaholism (*Unplugged*).

RELATIONS BETWEEN WORKAHOLISM PROFILES AND WORK PASSION

To further investigate the construct validity of our workaholism profiles, while expanding upon previous research, we considered associations between employees' HP and OP for their work and their workaholism profile. In the following paragraphs, we present theoretical arguments to help us better understand the associations between the workaholism profiles, HP and OP.

Passionate workers devote a lot of time and effort to their work, see it as central to their identity, love it, and consider it as significant (Vallerand & Houliort, 2019). The dualistic model of passion (Vallerand, 2015; Vallerand et al., 2003) also highlights the importance of differentiating between harmonious (a strong psychological investment in an activity [job] that is freely chosen by the individual) and obsessive (strong psychological investment in an activity [job] that is motivated by internal or external reasons associated with the activity) passion. From their perspective, HP should be anchored in autonomous forms of motivation, whereas OP should be anchored in more controlled types of motivation, in addition to autonomous motivation (Wang et al., 2011).

HP workers deliberately decide to engage in a work that they love, which has been autonomously internalized into their identity. Work is a central, but not overpowering, part of their identity. As a result, HP for work represents a strong, but controllable, motivational force that can exist in harmony with other facets of employees' life (Vallerand & Houliort, 2019). Although *Unplugged* employees should be able to distance themselves from their work in a way that allows it to coexist in harmony with other spheres of their life, their generally distanced orientation to their work may not be fully compatible with the central place occupied by work in the life of passionate employees (Vallerand, 2015). In contrast, *Moderately Unplugged* employees should be those most likely to display higher levels of HP toward their work, as their level of work investment is not overpowering, allowing them to also enjoy other parts of their life (Gillet et al., 2017). In contrast, although OP employees also love their work, they feel pressured to engage in it resulting from internal or external contingencies and pressures (Vallerand, 2015). These contingencies might be a boost of self-esteem, social approval, or avoiding negative emotions. As a result of this more controlled form of internalization, OP entails an uncontrollable urge to work, leading OP workers, just like workaholics, to have

difficulties drawing clear boundaries between work and life domains (Gillet et al., 2017; Vallerand & Houliort, 2019). For these reasons, *Plugged In* employees should be most likely to display a high level of OP as they not only work hard but do so while retaining a constant connection to their work that is likely to interfere with their ability to invest other spheres of their life (Clark et al., 2020).

Prior studies have found OP to be associated with higher levels of workaholism (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Dalla Rosa & Vianello, 2020; Lajom et al., 2018; Omar et al., 2021). In contrast, HP was generally found to share no significant associations with workaholism (Birkeland & Buch, 2015) or to be negatively related to it (Dalla Rosa & Vianello, 2020; Lajom et al., 2018; Omar et al., 2021). Indeed, unlike OP employees, workaholics do not necessarily love their work (Smith et al., 2023) and are characterized by high levels of controlled motivation as their work involvement stems from feelings of obligation (van Beek et al., 2011). However, both workaholics and OP workers devote a lot of energy and time to their work, feel compelled to work, and persevere when facing difficulties (Birkeland & Buch, 2015). They also have trouble detaching from work (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Vallerand & Houliort, 2019). In contrast, although HP workers also invest a great deal of energy, effort, and time in their work, the reasons behind their strong work involvement are different. More specifically, HP workers are autonomously motivated, meaning that their work involvement stems from the experience of enjoyable and satisfying work experiences (Vallerand, 2015). As a result of their active work involvement, HP employees are unlikely to display an *Unplugged* orientation, while the harmonious nature of their involvement is incompatible with a *Plugged In* scenario, thereby allowing us to expect stronger connections between HP and the *Moderately Unplugged* profile.

These past studies have typically focused on associations between work passion and multiple covariates including workaholism (e.g., Birkeland & Buch, 2015) while specifically seeking to document the discriminant and predictive validity of HP and OP. The present study seeks to complement this previous evidence by assessing whether and how levels of OP and HP can be differentiated according to the nature of workaholism profiles. However, the lack of previous research and theory specifically focused on G/S components of workaholism as defined by the MWS in relation to work passion makes it hard to formulate hypotheses about to the S-dimensions of workaholism. In sum, existing theory and research suggest that:

Hypothesis 5. Profiles with higher levels of workaholism (*Plugged In*) should display higher levels of OP than profiles with lower levels of workaholism (*Moderately Unplugged* and *Unplugged*).

Hypothesis 6. Profiles with very low (*Unplugged*) or very high levels of workaholism (*Plugged In*) should display lower levels of HP than more balanced profiles (*Moderately Unplugged*).

THE ROLE OF WORK CHARACTERISTICS

Prior studies have uncovered some variations in workaholism depending on employees' work contexts (Clark et al., 2016; Taris et al., 2012). As a robust test of generalizability, we examine whether workaholism profiles and their associations with covariates generalize to employees working: (a) onsite or remotely, (b) full-time or part-time, (c) in the public or private sector,

(d) in a permanent or temporary position, (e) in their current job for at least 20 years (experienced) or less than 1 year (novice), and (f) as a supervisor or without a managerial position. Rather than simply assessing generalizability across samples of otherwise similar employees (which would have been of limited utility as a test of generalizability), these work characteristics were selected to provide robust test of generalizability because of their documented theoretical or empirical relevance to workaholism.

For instance, working remotely is positively related to workaholism, emerging from employees' desire to give back to their organization because of the greater autonomy and flexibility and autonomy it offers them (van Beek et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2021). In contrast, onsite employees generally work more conventional hours, making it easier for them to limit the place taken by their work in their personal life (Gillet, Morin, Huyghebaert-Zouaghi, et al., 2022). Research also shows that temporary employees often feel more pressure to demonstrate their value to the organization, with the hope of becoming permanent, which leads them to devote more time to their work than they should, often to the detriment of their private life (Chambel & Farina, 2015). In contrast, by spending less time at work than full-time employees, part-time employees have more resources to devote to their personal life (Chambel et al., 2017).

Public sector workers feel they have greater stability in their work because they do not face the same market pressures as private sector workers (Urbanaviciute et al., 2018). They also feel a greater sense of meaning at work than private sector employees, as their work offers services that benefit the community as opposed to profit-seeking (Zeffane & Melhem, 2017). Moreover, governmental offices can offer greater flexibility in scheduling work hours and part-time contract to meet individual needs and improve work-family balance (Powell & Cortis, 2017). For their part, more experienced employees have had more time to develop a work routine and habits allowing them to maintain a balance between their work and personal lives, relative to novice employees (Bradley, 2007). Finally, supervisors are faced with multiple job demands that require them to devote a lot of time and energy at work, and thus tend to display higher levels of workaholism (Clark et al., 2016).

Given our primary goal of testing generalizability, we do not offer specific hypotheses on potential differences between workaholism profiles (and their links with covariates) as a function of these work characteristics. Rather, we expect results to be replicated across all subsamples (even if it cannot be excluded that these differences in work characteristics may have a significant effect).

METHOD

Participants

Sample 1 included 1340 employees (65.4% female) aged 18 to 67 ($M_{\text{age}} = 35.77$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 12.40$), including 738 onsite workers (Sample 1a) and 602 remote workers (Sample 1b). Sample 2 included 1274 employees (68.2% female) aged 18 to 66 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 31.13$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 12.24$), including 672 full-time (Sample 2a) and 602 part-time (Sample 2b) employees. Sample 3 included 1536 employees (67.2% females) aged 18 to 65 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 40.28$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 11.74$), including 616 private sector (Sample 3a) and 920 public sector (Sample 3b) employees. Sample 4 included 1182 employees (69.5% females) aged 18 to 69 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 33.11$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 12.29$), including 639 permanent (Sample 4a) and 543 temporary (Sample 4b) employees. Sample

5 included 1208 participants (56.8% females) aged 18 to 67 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 37.67$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 14.54$), including 509 experienced (Sample 5a: 20 years and more of tenure in the current position) and 699 novice (Sample 5b: less than 1 year of tenure in the current position) employees. Finally, Sample 6 included 1404 participants (57.1% females) aged 20 to 65 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 43.22$; $SD_{\text{age}} = 9.51$), including 695 managers (Sample 6a) and 709 non-managers (Sample 6b). Other demographic characteristics are reported in Table 1 for all subsamples.

Procedure

Employees from multiple French organizations were contacted by research assistants via social networks. They worked in a wide range of sectors (e.g., retail, industry, care) and occupied very different positions within their organization (e.g. blue-collar, middle or senior management). Before completing our measures (i.e., 10 min), they were provided information on the aims of the study. They were also told that participation was voluntary, that data would remain confidential, and that they could freely interrupt their participation at any time. They received no remuneration for their participation. These actions resulted in heterogeneous convenience samples of workers of unknown generalizability. Those who agreed to participate completed an online questionnaire on the SurveyMonkey platform including screening questions (e.g., age, tenure, working time, and sector) and the scales described in the succeeding discussions.

Measures

All questionnaires were previously validated in French and were administered in this language. These French versions were found to display psychometric properties comparable to those of the original versions (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022).

Workaholism was assessed with a 16-item scale developed by Clark et al. (2020); French version by Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022). This instrument assesses four dimensions of workaholism, each with four items: Cognitive (e.g., “*In general, I spend my free time thinking about work*”; $\alpha = 0.87$ to 0.88 across samples), motivational (e.g., “*I work because there is a part inside of me that feels compelled to work*”; $\alpha = 0.72$ to 0.77 across samples), behavioral (e.g., “*I tend to work beyond my job’s requirements*”; $\alpha = 0.77$ to 0.82 across samples), and emotional (e.g., “*I am almost always frustrated when I am not able to work*”; $\alpha = 0.80$ to 0.83 across samples). Responses were reported on a 7-point scale (“*Strongly disagree*” to “*Strongly agree*”).

WFC was measured using three items (e.g., “*My work schedule makes it difficult for me to fulfill my family obligations*”; $\alpha = 0.84$ to 0.89 across samples) from Huyghebaert et al. (2018; originally developed in French). Items were rated on a 7-point scale (“*Strongly disagree*” to “*Strongly agree*”).

Work passion was measured using Philippe et al.’s (2017; originally developed in French) measure covering HP (three items; e.g., “*Work is in harmony with the other things that are part of me*”; $\alpha = 0.80$ to 0.84 across samples) and OP (three items; e.g., “*I have almost an obsessive feeling for work*”; $\alpha = 0.70$ to 0.74 across samples). Items were rated on a 7-point scale (“*Strongly disagree*” to “*Strongly agree*”).

TABLE 1 Demographic characteristics and profile membership for all subsamples.

	Sample 1		Sample 2		Sample 3		Sample 4		Sample 5		Sample 6	
	A: onsite	B: remote	A: full time	B: part time	A: private	B: public	A: permanent	B: temporary	A: experienced	B: novice	A: managers	B: non-managers
Sex												
% female	59.1%	73.3%	60.4%	76.9%	68.0%	66.6%	69.6%	69.2%	59.9%	54.5%	49.1%	65.0%
Age												
M years	33.47	38.59	33.08	28.96	35.42	43.53	38.72	26.51	51.41	27.64	44.16	42.30
SD years	12.34	11.88	11.12	13.05	11.89	10.46	11.69	9.35	5.74	10.16	9.15	9.77
Education:												
University	33.1%	66.3%	60.9%	32.7%	51.6%	53.0%	58.8%	53.4%	36.3%	43.9%	56.7%	56.0%
Position												
Permanent	71.5%	78.4%	75.3%	68.1%	78.4%	100%	100%	0%	97.8%	64.2%	100%	100%
Full-time	84.8%	80.9%	100%	0%	87.7%	100%	80.6%	86.2%	81.7%	86.8%	100%	100%
Supervisory	19.0%	24.8%	32.0%	9.6%	17.7%	40.7%	19.4%	13.8%	23.2%	29.0%	100%	0%
Private sector	85.5%	82.1%	94.0%	87.5%	100%	0%	87.6%	78.1%	82.7%	92.7%	100%	100%
Tenure (organization)												
M years	6.40	9.08	4.52	3.43	6.50	14.03	9.32	1.34	25.91	2.21	12.72	11.51
SD years	7.80	9.75	6.65	5.86	7.51	10.35	8.76	1.80	7.62	4.79	7.96	7.77
Tenure (position)												
M years	4.16	5.51	1.94	2.55	4.16	5.86	5.21	1.13	25.04	0.50	7.41	7.58
SD years	4.66	6.68	2.18	3.55	4.26	4.88	4.86	1.56	5.58	0.15	4.30	4.34

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

	Sample 1		Sample 2		Sample 3		Sample 4		Sample 5		Sample 6	
	A: onsite	B: remote	A: full time	B: part time	A: private	B: public	A: permanent	B: temporary	A: experienced	B: novice	A: managers	B: non-managers
<i>Profiles</i>												
Preoccupied employees with very low GW	(1) 2.5%	(1) 2.5%	(1) 2.8%	(1) 2.8%	(1) 1.7%	(1) 1.7%	(1) 8.9%	(1) 8.9%	(1) 2.7%	(1) 0.4%	(1) 1.0%	(1) 2.4%
Disengaged employees with low GW	(2) 16.4%	(2) 16.4%	(2) 15.5%	(2) 15.5%	(2) 10.5%	(2) 10.5%	(2) 14.7%	(2) 14.7%	(2) 8.1%	(2) 1.8%	(2) 5.1%	(2) 19.1%
Motivated and involved employees with moderately low GW	(3) 19.9%	(3) 19.9%	(3) 11.3%	(3) 11.3%	(3) 23.3%	(3) 23.3%	(3) 10.2%	(3) 10.2%	(3) 20.6%	(3) 18.7%	(3) 15.6%	(3) 12.4%
Normative	(4) 43.7%	(4) 43.7%	(4) 62.4%	(4) 62.4%	(4) 50.4%	(4) 50.4%	(4) 58.3%	(4) 58.3%	(4) 45.3%	(4) 63.2%	(4) 47.8%	(4) 50.4%
Preoccupied employees with high GW	(5) 17.5%	(5) 17.5%	(5) 8.0%	(5) 8.0%	(5) 14.1%	(5) 14.1%	(5) 8.0%	(5) 8.0%	(5) 23.2%	(5) 15.9%	(5) 30.5%	(5) 15.7%

Note: M: mean, SD: standard deviation, GW: global levels of workaholism.

ANALYSES

Preliminary analyses

The psychometric properties of all multi-item measures were verified in preliminary factor analyses. Results of these analyses (factor structure, factor correlations, composite reliability, and invariance across subsamples) are detailed in the online supplements (text and Tables S1–S4). The factor scores (estimated in standardized units with $M = 0$ and $SD = 1$) derived from these measurement models were used in the main analyses (Meyer & Morin, 2016; Morin, Meyer, et al., 2016). To enable valid group comparisons, factor scores were taken from the most invariant models estimated across subsamples within each sample (Millsap, 2011). Factor scores retain the structure of the measurement model (e.g., invariance; Morin, Boudrias, et al., 2016) and are partially corrected for unreliability (Skrondal & Laake, 2001).

Model estimation

Analyses were conducted in Mplus 8.8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2022) using the maximum likelihood robust (MLR) estimator. The limited amount of missing responses (Sample 1: 0% to 1.19%, Sample 2: 0% to 1.02%, Sample 3: 0% to 0.46%, Sample 4: 0% to 1.10%, Sample 5: 0% to 0.91%, and Sample 6: 0% to 1.78%) were handled using full information maximum likelihood (FIML; Enders, 2010) procedures. Latent profile analyses were estimated with 5000 random starts, 1000 iterations, and 200 optimizations (Hipp & Bauer, 2006; Morin & Litalien, 2019).

Latent profile analyses (LPA)

LPA seeks to summarize the multivariate distribution of scores obtained on a set of profile indicators by a set of latent profiles reflecting subpopulations of employees with distinct configurations of scores (McLachlan & Peel, 2000). This approach is probabilistic in the sense that all participants have a probability of membership in all profiles (thus forming prototypes), resulting in a solution controlled for classification error (Morin et al., 2018). In each sample, we estimated models including one to eight profiles separately across subsamples. The indicators' means and variances were freely estimated in all profiles (Morin & Litalien, 2019).

Model comparison and selection

Selecting the optimal solution, in terms of how many profiles to retain, entails an examination of each solution in terms of meaningfulness, theoretical alignment, and statistical adequacy (Marsh et al., 2009; Morin, 2016). Statistical indices can also guide this decision by pointing a range of possibly relevant solutions (McLachlan & Peel, 2000). Thus, lower scores on the Akaike and Bayesian Information Criteria (AIC and BIC) and on their Consistent (CAIC) and sample-size Adjusted counterparts (ABIC) indicate a better fit to the data. A statistically significant Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test (BLRT and adjusted Lo et al.'s (2001) Likelihood Ratio Test (aLMR) also indicate better fit relative to a solution with fewer profiles.

Statistical research has demonstrated that the CAIC, BIC, ABIC, and BLRT were useful indicators of the true number of profiles (e.g., Diallo et al., 2016, 2017). The aMLR and AIC are thus only reported for purposes of transparency and will not be used in model comparisons. These tests are all sample size dependent (Marsh et al., 2009). As a result, they often fail to support a specific solution. However, they can be graphical displayed (i.e., an elbow plot) to locate inflexion points in the decrease of the information criteria (Morin et al., 2011). In practice (e.g., Morin, Boudrias, et al., 2016; Morin & Litalien, 2019), the statistical indicators are considered first to help pinpoint a range of acceptable solutions, which are then examined to eliminate those that are statistically improper, before being contrasted in terms of meaningfulness and theoretical alignment. Finally, the entropy summarizes the classification accuracy (0 to 1) of the solution, although this indicator should not be used to select the optimal solution (Lubke & Muthén, 2007).

Tests of profile similarity

As long as the same number of profiles is retained across subsamples within each sample (Morin & Wang, 2016), subsample-specific solutions can be combined in a single multi-group LPA model to test the similarity of these solutions across subsamples (Morin & Litalien, 2017; Morin, Meyer, et al., 2016). Retaining the same number of profiles refers to the *configural* similarity of the solution. Equality constraints are then included on the mean of the indicators within matching profiles (*structural* similarity), on their variance (*dispersion* similarity), and finally on the size of the profiles (*distributional* similarity). Each form of similarity is supported when two indicators (out of the BIC, CAIC, and ABIC) decrease relative to the previous step in the sequence (Morin, Meyer, et al., 2016).

Predictors and covariates of profile membership

Using the most similar multi-group model, we then tested whether the associations among profiles, demographic predictors (*predictive* similarity), and covariates (*explanatory* similarity) were replicated across subsamples within each sample. For these tests, the demographic predictors¹ (i.e., sex, age, marital situation, parental situation, education level, organization size, work sector, permanent or temporary contract, working full time or part time, supervisory role, tenure in the current position, organizational tenure, and working remotely or onsite) and covariates (i.e., HP, OP, and WFC) were included in the final (most similar) LPA solutions. For the predictors, we contrasted three alternative models, each estimated while directly including the predictors within the most similar LPA solution identified previously via a multinomial logistic regression link (Morin & Litalien, 2019). First, a null effects model assumed no association between the predictors and the profiles. Second, predictions were free to vary across subsamples. Finally, predictions were free but constrained to equality across subsamples (*predictive* similarity). Covariates were then also directly included in the within the most similar LPA solution identified previously. Levels on the covariates were thus simply allowed to differ as a function of profile membership. *Explanatory* similarity was tested by constraining these differences to equality across subsamples. The significance of between-profile differences was assessed using the multivariate delta method (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2004), corresponding to a test of mean differences across profiles.

RESULTS

Latent profile analyses (LPA)

The results from the subsample-specific LPA are reported in Table S6. They are also graphically presented (elbow plots) in Figure S1 of the Supporting Information. Indicators failed to converge on a dominant solution across subsamples. However, when some of these indicators reached a lowest point, it was systematically to support solutions including four to six profiles (with marked variations across subsamples and indicators)—a conclusion that was supported by an examination of the elbow plots. These solutions (as well as adjacent solutions including three and seven profiles) were thus more carefully examined. These solutions were already quite similar across subsamples, thus providing early evidence of *configural* similarity. Moreover, this examination revealed that adding a fourth and a fifth profiles to the solution always resulted in a theoretically meaningful contribution to the solution across all subsamples. In contrast, adding a sixth or seventh profile systematically resulted in the arbitrary separation of an already identified profile into smaller ones with a comparable shape or in empty profiles. A five-profile solution was thus retained across all subsamples.

The results from the tests of profile similarity conducted on this five-profile solution across subsamples within each of our six samples are reported in Table 2. In Samples 1–4, all equality constraints resulted in a systematic decrease in the value of the BIC, CAIC, and ABIC, and were thus supported, leading us to retain a model of *distributional* similarity in these four samples. In Samples 5 and 6, the model of *distributional* similarity was associated with an increase in the value of the BIC, CAIC, and ABIC and was thus rejected. These results suggest that the size of the profiles differed between experienced and novice employees, and between managers and non-managers.

The final solutions retained for all samples are presented in Figure 1 (also see Table 1), while parameters can be consulted in Tables S7 and S8. Consistent with the generally high entropy associated with these solutions (0.705 to 0.818), the results (Table S8) suggest that they all present a relatively high level of classification accuracy, ranging from 70.7% to 100% across profiles and subsamples. The similarity in the nature of the profiles identified across samples is noteworthy, revealing five virtually identical configurations across samples: *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, *Normative*, and *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*. A summary of all results as they pertain to each of our hypotheses is provided in Table 4.

Demographic predictors

As indicated in Table 2, no associations were found between the demographic variables and profile membership within our six samples. Indeed, for all samples, the BIC, CAIC, and ABIC were systematically lower for the null effects model than for alternative models.

Covariates of profile membership

As indicated in Table 2, the results showed profiles–covariates relations that generalized across subsamples within our six samples. Indeed, in all samples, the BIC, CAIC, and ABIC were

TABLE 2 Results from the multi-group latent profile analyses (all samples).

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy
Sample 1								
Configural similarity	-8471.825	109	1.133	17161.650	17837.170	17728.170	17381.925	.749
Structural similarity	-8505.307	84	1.157	17178.614	17699.199	17615.199	17348.368	.710
Dispersion similarity	-8517.778	59	1.329	17153.556	17519.205	17460.205	17272.288	.709
Distributional similarity	-8524.723	55	1.399	17159.445	17500.304	17445.304	17270.593	.705
<i>Predictive similarity: Predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-24554.662	109	1.019	49327.123	50002.969	49893.969	49547.724	.703
Free relations with predictors	-24489.768	213	0.999	49405.536	50736.227	50513.227	49836.619	.721
Equal relations with predictors	-24508.913	161	1.011	49339.285	50338.093	50177.093	49665.667	.714
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-13067.696	33	1.034	26201.392	26406.006	26373.006	26268.179	.827
Equal relations with covariates	-13106.681	18	1.061	26249.361	26360.969	26342.969	26255.791	.825
Sample 2								
Configural similarity	-8119.765	109	1.087	16457.429	17127.870	17018.870	16672.633	.810
Structural similarity	-8183.873	84	1.102	16535.747	17052.340	16968.340	16701.515	.813
Dispersion similarity	-8195.894	59	1.198	16509.788	16872.634	16813.634	16626.221	.816
Distributional similarity	-8200.643	55	1.132	16511.287	16849.532	16794.532	16619.826	.818
<i>Predictive similarity: predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-24539.530	109	1.155	49297.060	49969.435	49860.435	49514.195	.809
Free relations with predictors	-24462.461	213	1.075	49350.922	50664.830	50451.830	49775.232	.823
Equal relations with predictors	-24494.624	161	1.120	49311.249	50304.390	50143.390	49631.971	.816
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-12823.866	33	0.828	25713.733	25917.270	25884.270	25779.445	.860
Equal relations with covariates	-12865.736	18	0.848	25767.471	25878.492	25860.492	25803.315	.859

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy
Sample 3								
Configural similarity	-9808.467	109	1.159	19834.934	20525.660	20416.660	20070.394	.711
Structural similarity	-9835.881	84	1.203	19839.763	20372.065	20288.065	20021.218	.726
Dispersion similarity	-9854.418	59	1.299	19826.836	20200.716	20141.716	19954.287	.741
Distributional similarity	-9859.181	55	1.295	19828.361	20176.893	20121.893	19947.172	.741
<i>Predictive similarity: predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-29535.993	109	1.021	59289.986	59985.773	59876.773	59530.501	.717
Free relations with predictors	-29430.438	213	0.937	59286.876	60646.534	60433.534	59756.873	.742
Equal relations with predictors	-29464.058	161	1.018	59250.115	60277.838	60116.838	59605.371	.731
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-15262.438	33	0.980	30590.875	30801.506	30768.506	30663.671	.846
Equal relations with covariates	-15278.519	18	1.011	30593.038	30707.928	30689.928	30632.745	.844
Sample 4								
Configural similarity	-7580.032	109	1.118	15378.064	16040.235	15931.235	15585.012	.803
Structural similarity	-7660.070	84	1.221	15488.140	15998.437	15914.437	15647.622	.723
Dispersion similarity	-7682.147	59	1.754	15482.294	15840.717	15781.717	15594.311	.720
Distributional similarity	-7694.008	55	1.211	15498.016	15832.139	15777.139	15602.439	.792
<i>Predictive similarity: predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-22855.028	109	1.030	45928.056	46592.869	46483.869	46137.641	.779
Free relations with predictors	-22759.210	213	1.035	45944.420	47243.550	47030.550	46353.976	.806
Equal relations with predictors	-22793.442	161	1.027	45908.883	46890.855	46729.855	46218.454	.794
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-11940.043	33	0.887	23946.086	24147.360	24114.360	24009.539	.837
Equal relations with covariates	-11959.562	18	0.899	23955.124	24064.910	24046.910	23989.735	.833

(Continues)

TABLE 2 (Continued)

Model	LL	#fp	Scaling	AIC	CAIC	BIC	ABIC	Entropy
Sample 5								
Configural similarity	-7580.985	109	1.167	15379.970	16044.513	15935.513	15589.286	.812
Structural similarity	-7626.164	84	1.177	15420.328	15932.452	15848.452	15581.635	.820
Dispersion similarity	-7634.554	59	1.202	15387.109	15746.815	15687.815	15500.408	.805
Distributional similarity	-7658.581	55	1.116	15427.162	15762.482	15707.482	15532.780	.831
<i>Predictive similarity: predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-21203.474	109	1.069	42624.948	43289.219	43180.219	42833.992	.805
Free relations with predictors	-21107.135	213	0.988	42640.270	43938.342	43725.342	43048.769	.820
Equal relations with predictors	-21142.766	161	1.046	42607.531	43588.703	43427.703	42916.303	.814
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-11955.102	33	0.836	23976.203	24178.071	24145.071	24040.249	.865
Equal relations with covariates	-11960.632	18	0.872	23957.263	24067.373	24049.373	23992.197	.864
Sample 6								
Configural similarity	-8900.660	109	1.084	18019.320	18700.252	18591.252	18244.999	.728
Structural similarity	-8945.606	84	1.094	18059.211	18583.966	18499.966	18233.129	.756
Dispersion similarity	-8970.599	59	1.134	18059.198	18427.776	18368.776	18181.355	.757
Distributional similarity	-9003.399	55	1.135	18116.797	18460.386	18405.386	18230.672	.714
<i>Predictive similarity: predictors</i>								
Null effects model	-25970.839	70	0.945	52081.678	52529.767	52449.767	52227.401	.752
Free relations with predictors	-25914.542	150	0.965	52129.084	53067.846	52917.846	52441.349	.770
Equal relations with predictors	-25940.242	110	0.976	52100.484	52788.909	52678.909	52329.478	.756
<i>Explanatory similarity</i>								
Free relations with covariates	-13772.948	33	0.886	27611.896	27818.464	27785.464	27680.594	.843
Equal relations with covariates	-13796.505	18	0.941	27629.009	27741.661	27723.661	27666.481	.844

Note: LL: Model loglikelihood; #fp: Number of free parameters; Scaling: Scaling correction factor associated with robust maximum likelihood estimates; AIC: Akaike information criteria; CAIC: Constant AIC; BIC: Bayesian information criteria; ABIC: Sample size adjusted BIC.

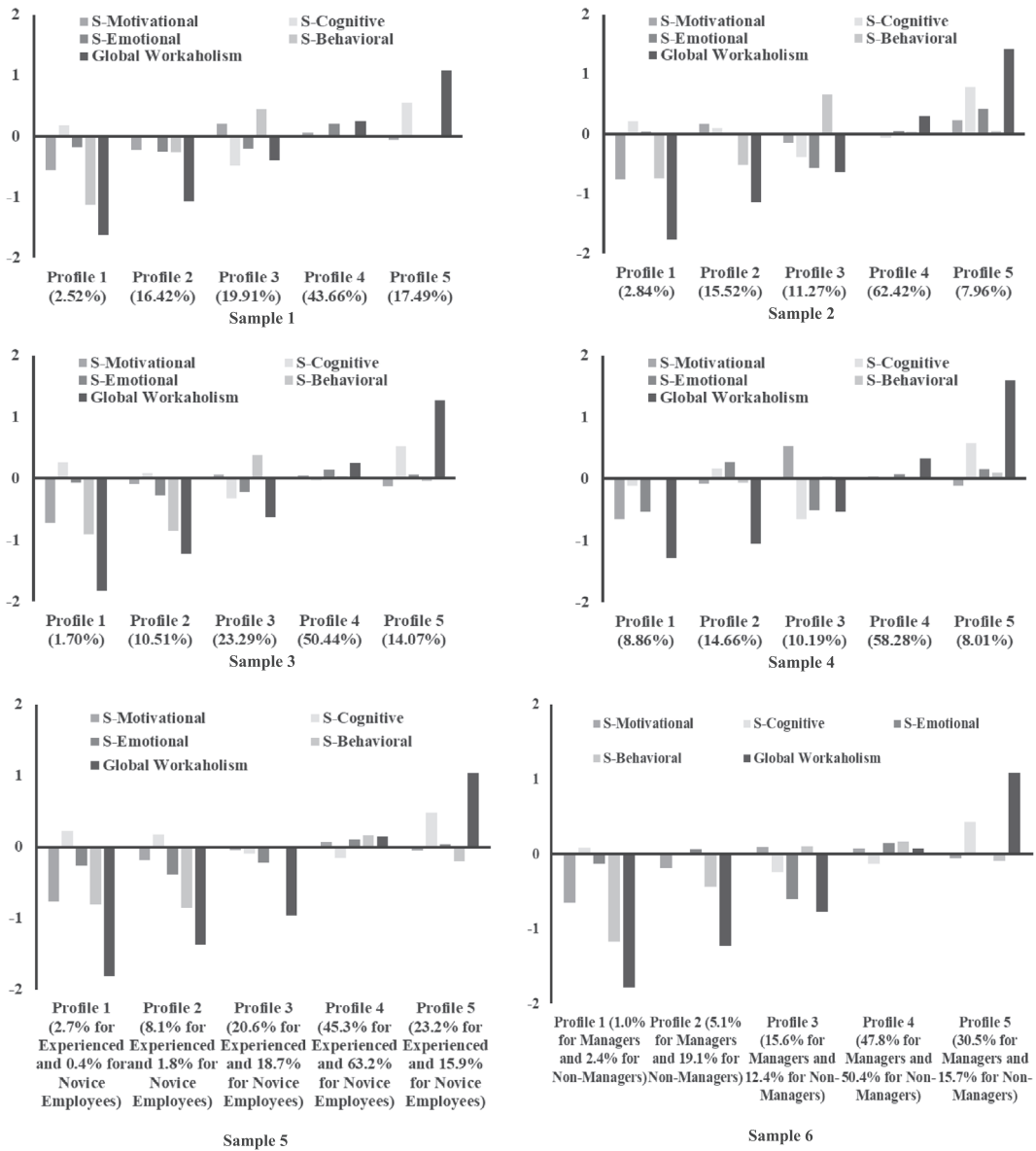


FIGURE 1 Final five-profile solutions observed in all samples. *Note.* Profile indicators are factor scores estimated in standardized units ($M = 0$; $SD = 1$); Profile 1: *Preoccupied employees with very low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 2: *Disengaged employees with low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 3: *Motivated and involved employees with moderately low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 4: *Normative*; and Profile 5: *Preoccupied employees with high global levels of workaholism*.

lower for the model of *explanatory* similarity than for the alternative model allowing these associations to differ across subsamples. These results are reported in Table 3 (also see Table 4). The *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* [5] profile displayed the highest levels of WFC and OP, followed by the *Normative* [4] profile, while the lowest levels of WFC and OP were found among *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*

TABLE 3 Associations between profile membership and the covariates (all samples).

	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3	Profile 4	Profile 5	Statistically significant differences
Work-family conflict	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	
Sample 1	-0.796 [-1.024; -0.568]	-0.665 [-0.752; -0.578]	-0.698 [-0.775; -0.621]	0.131 [0.044; 0.217]	1.293 [1.194; 1.391]	1 = 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 2	-0.939 [-1.123; -0.755]	-0.616 [-0.709; -0.524]	-0.796 [-0.867; -0.726]	0.145 [0.071; 0.218]	1.364 [1.237; 1.492]	1 = 3 < 2 < 4 < 5
Sample 3	-0.995 [-1.129; -0.860]	-0.735 [-0.820; -0.651]	-0.778 [-0.820; -0.736]	0.255 [0.170; 0.340]	1.381 [1.297; 1.466]	1 < 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 4	-0.743 [-0.864; -0.622]	-0.540 [-0.640; -0.439]	-0.725 [-0.810; -0.641]	0.191 [0.109; 0.273]	1.441 [1.305; 1.576]	1 = 3 < 2 < 4 < 5
Sample 5	-1.088 [-1.260; -0.916]	-0.619 [-0.767; -0.471]	-0.697 [-0.764; -0.630]	-0.046 [-0.120; 0.029]	1.182 [1.057; 1.308]	1 < 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 6	-1.218 [-1.407; -1.030]	-1.102 [-1.177; -1.028]	-0.923 [-1.045; -0.801]	-0.289 [-0.367; -0.211]	0.945 [0.867; 1.022]	1 = 2 < 3 < 4 < 5
Harmonious passion	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	
Sample 1	-0.161 [-0.548; 0.225]	0.098 [-0.054; 0.250]	0.225 [0.090; 0.361]	-0.081 [-0.174; 0.011]	-0.138 [-0.266; -0.010]	4 = 5 < 3; 5 < 2; 1 = 2 = 3; 1 = 4 = 5; 2 = 4
Sample 2	0.315 [-0.055; 0.684]	-0.030 [-0.171; 0.112]	0.335 [0.206; 0.464]	-0.054 [-0.128; 0.019]	-0.263 [-0.465; -0.060]	5 < 1 = 3; 1 = 2 = 4; 2 = 5 < 3; 4 = 5 < 3
Sample 3	-0.104 [-0.485; 0.276]	-0.046 [-0.228; 0.135]	0.363 [0.278; 0.449]	-0.153 [-0.232; -0.073]	-0.181 [-0.306; -0.057]	1 = 2 = 4 = 5 < 3
Sample 4	0.226 [0.033; 0.420]	0.118 [-0.047; 0.283]	0.159 [-0.023; 0.341]	-0.082 [-0.164; 0.000]	-0.161 [-0.369; 0.047]	4 = 5 < 1 = 2 = 3
Sample 5	0.697 [0.372; 1.022]	-0.296 [-0.613; 0.022]	-0.035 [-0.168; 0.099]	0.042 [-0.037; 0.120]	-0.069 [-0.186; 0.047]	2 = 3 = 4 = 5 < 1
Sample 6	0.054 [-0.375; 0.482]	0.356 [0.225; 0.488]	0.101 [-0.076; 0.279]	0.056 [-0.031; 0.142]	-0.194 [-0.297; -0.091]	5 < 3 = 4 < 2; 1 = 3 = 4; 1 = 2; 1 = 5

TABLE 3 (Continued)

	Profile 1	Profile 2	Profile 3	Profile 4	Profile 5	Statistically significant differences
	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	M [CI]	
Obsessive passion						
Sample 1	-0.890 [-1.053; -0.727]	-0.698 [-0.756; -0.641]	-0.687 [-0.740; -0.635]	0.079 [0.014; 0.144]	1.460 [1.368; 1.552]	1 < 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 2	-0.948 [-1.059; -0.838]	-0.728 [-0.791; -0.666]	-0.776 [-0.828; -0.723]	0.132 [0.067; 0.197]	1.577 [1.458; 1.695]	1 < 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 3	-1.068 [-1.146; -0.990]	-0.800 [-0.857; -0.744]	-0.721 [-0.757; -0.685]	0.216 [0.145; 0.287]	1.452 [1.359; 1.545]	1 < 2 < 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 4	-0.815 [-0.890; -0.740]	-0.643 [-0.698; -0.588]	-0.740 [-0.790; -0.690]	0.209 [0.137; 0.280]	1.591 [1.495; 1.687]	1 = 3 < 2 < 4 < 5
Sample 5	-1.037 [-1.116; -0.958]	-0.807 [-0.910; -0.704]	-0.753 [-0.806; -0.699]	-0.048 [-0.111; 0.016]	1.296 [1.188; 1.403]	1 < 2 = 3 < 4 < 5
Sample 6	-1.341 [-1.427; -1.255]	-1.145 [-1.198; -1.093]	-1.048 [-1.120; -0.977]	-0.325 [-0.388; -0.263]	0.998 [0.927; 1.069]	1 < 2 < 3 < 4 < 5

Note: M: Mean; CI: 95% confidence interval; Work-family conflict and passion are factor scores estimated in standardized units ($M = 0$; $SD = 1$); Profile 1: *Preoccupied employees with very low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 2: *Disengaged employees with low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 3: *Motivated and involved employees with moderately low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 4: *Normative*; and Profile 5: *Preoccupied employees with high global levels of workaholism*.

TABLE 4 Summary of hypotheses and results.

Hypotheses	Results	Support
<i>Hypotheses about the characteristics of workaholism profiles</i>		
H1 At least four profiles will be identified.	Five workaholism profiles were found: 1 - preoccupied employees with very low global levels of workaholism; 2 - disengaged employees with low global levels of workaholism; 3 - motivated and involved employees with moderately low global levels of workaholism; 4 - normative; and 5 - preoccupied employees with high global levels of workaholism.	Full support
H2 Three of these profiles will correspond to our plugged in, unplugged, and moderately unplugged scenarios.	Profile 1 displayed very low G-levels of workaholism in all samples. In most samples, this profile was also accompanied by low S-levels of motivational workaholism (6/6 samples), low S-levels of behavioral workaholism (5/6 samples), and close to average S-levels of emotional workaholism (5/6 samples). Across all samples, the highest score observed in this profile was on the S-levels of cognitive workaholism (average to slightly above average). Profile 4 displayed close to average levels across all G/S dimensions of workaholism in all samples. Profile 5 displayed very high G-levels of workaholism, moderately high S-levels of cognitive workaholism, and close to average S-levels on all other dimensions of workaholism across all samples.	Partial support
H3 At least one additional profile displaying a clearer differentiation among the G/S workaholism dimensions will be identified.	Profile 2 displayed low G-levels of workaholism, moderately low to low S-levels of behavioral workaholism, and close to average S-levels on the other dimensions. Profile 3 displayed moderately low G-levels of workaholism, under average to moderately low S-levels of cognitive and emotional workaholism, and close to average to moderately high S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism.	Full support
<i>Hypotheses about covariates of workaholism profiles</i>		
H4 Profiles with higher levels of workaholism (plugged in) will display the highest WFC, followed by profiles with average and balanced G/S levels of workaholism (moderately unplugged), and finally by profiles with lower levels of workaholism (unplugged).	Profile 5 displayed the highest levels of WFC followed by Profile 4 in all samples. No other differences were observed in sample 1, although the tendencies observed in this sample in relation to the remaining profiles were similar to those observed in the other samples. In samples 2–4 and 5,	Partial support

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Hypotheses	Results	Support
	Profile 2 displayed the next highest levels of WFC, although these levels did not differ from those observed in Profile 3 in samples 3 and 5. Interestingly, Profile 3 was the one displaying the next higher levels of WFC in sample 6. The lowest levels of WFC were found in Profile 1 in all samples, although this profile did not differ from Profiles 2 and 3 in sample 1, Profile 3 in samples 2 and 4, and Profile 2 in sample 6.	
H5 Profiles with higher levels of workaholism (plugged in) should display higher levels of OP than profiles with lower levels of workaholism (moderately unplugged and unplugged).	In all samples, OP levels were highest in Profile 5, followed by Profile 4, and then almost equally by Profiles 2 and 3 (in samples 3 and 6, Profile 3 had higher levels than Profile 2, whereas the opposite was noted in sample 4). Across all samples, the lowest levels of OP were found in Profile 1.	Partial support
H6 Profiles with very low (unplugged) or very high levels of workaholism (plugged in) should display lower levels of HP than more balanced profiles (moderately unplugged).	Levels of HP were highest in Profile 3, and lowest in the Profile 5 in samples 1–4. In contrast, levels of HP were highest in Profile 2, and lowest in Profile 5 in sample 6. In sample 4, Profile 2 also reported higher HP than Profile 4. Moreover, Profile 1 reported the highest levels of HP in sample 5, and higher HP than Profile 4 in sample 4.	Partial support

Note: G: Global; S: Specific; WFC: Work–family conflict; HP: Harmonious passion; OP: Obsessive passion; Profile 1: *Preoccupied employees with very low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 2: *Disengaged employees with low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 3: *Motivated and involved employees with moderately low global levels of workaholism*; Profile 4: *Normative*; and Profile 5: *Preoccupied employees with high global levels of workaholism*.

[1] in all samples. Levels of HP were highest in the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* [3] profile in Samples 1–4, and lowest in the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* [5] profile in Samples 1–4 and 6.

DISCUSSION

The present research contributes to our theoretical understanding of workaholism via the identification of the G/S workaholism configurations observed among different profiles of workers. To help guide practice into identifying which profiles are most likely to benefit from intervention, we documented the relations between these profiles and WFC. To further assess the construct validity of these profiles, we also tested their relations with OP and HP. Capitalizing on a multi-sample design made it possible to examine the generalizability of these profiles and of their relations with covariates across six samples, including 12 subsamples, of workers. Beyond their practical implications, our results have theoretical implications for workaholism research.

Workaholism profiles

Arguably, a key contribution of this research is the validation of the workaholism scenarios proposed in the introduction. More precisely, we identified five profiles that corresponded closely (i.e., *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism and Normative*), or in part (i.e., *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism, Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, and *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*) with the scenarios outlined in the introduction. Thus, our *Unplugged* scenario seemed to correspond to the *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, which displayed, in most samples, very low G-levels of workaholism coupled with low to average S-levels of motivational, behavioral, emotional, and cognitive workaholism. Similarly, the *Moderately Unplugged* scenario seemed to correspond to the *Normative* profile of employees, who displayed average G/S levels of workaholism across components.

Moreover, although our results only partially supported our second hypothesis as our profile corresponding to the *Plugged In* scenario (i.e., *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*) did not display high S-levels of workaholism, all profiles were expected from the findings of previous person-centered investigations (e.g., Gillet et al., 2017; Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009). This similarity of findings, regardless of the questionnaire used (i.e., DUWAS or MWS), highlights the robustness of our results and the potential usefulness of interventions targeting particular profiles of workers. Beyond this similarity across studies and measures, our results also provided evidence of replicability across six samples, and 12 subsamples, of Western (i.e., from France) employees. These findings suggest that these profiles may reflect overarching psychological mechanisms underpinning the experience of workaholism, rather than ephemeral phenomena linked to specific sample characteristics, irrespective of the components (or measure) used in their definition.

Our reliance on a bifactor (e.g., Morin et al., 2017; Morin, Boudrias, et al., 2016) disaggregation of G- and S-levels of workaholism as assessed by the comprehensive MWS (Clark et al., 2020) allowed us to achieve an improved, and more differentiated, picture of workaholism profiles relative to those previously found by Gillet et al. (2017) and Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al. (2022) using the DUWAS. Indeed, and challenging the generalizability of Gillet et al.'s (2017) conclusion suggesting that there was only little value in differentiating among workaholism dimensions, four of our profiles (with the sole exception of the *Normative* one) displayed a configuration that differed across the G- and S-dimensions. Rather, our results support Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al.'s (2022) conclusions highlighting the value of disaggregating G/S components of workaholism prior to the identification of the profiles. From a theoretical perspective, such findings thus suggest that workaholism levels are not necessarily aligned across dimensions once the variance shared among all components and absorbed into the G-factor is considered.

This G/S disaggregation also revealed that the synergy between the G/S workaholism facets alluded to in previous investigations (Gillet et al., 2017; Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Schaufeli, Bakker, et al., 2009) may not happen at high levels. Thus, the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed high G-levels of workaholism coupled with a moderately high S-level of cognitive workaholism, but close to average levels on all other S-dimensions of workaholism. These *Plugged In* employees thus seem to experience workaholism in a more global manner than expected. However, it is noteworthy that these employees still displayed slightly above average S-levels of cognitive workaholism. This result suggests that

these highly workaholic employees may be constantly thinking about their work in a way that matches the WC component of workaholism proposed by Schaufeli, Shimazu, and Taris (2009). Members of the *Normative* profile also seemed to experience workaholism in a global manner, while displaying an even more balanced configuration. This configuration suggests that these employees may experience a moderately demanding work context that neither strongly hinders their functioning nor stimulates their growth. According to the job demands–resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017), these more normative levels of job demands should be easier to incorporate in an ongoing work routine without requiring high levels of adaptation. This is also in line with past person-centered studies focusing on different work-related constructs (e.g., Gillet et al., 2019; Morin et al., 2017), which has revealed that for a substantial number of employees, work-related experiences do not involve extreme types of experiences but suggestive of a more normative routine. These two profiles thus seem consistent with Gillet et al.'s (2017) suggestion that there is little added value in distinguishing the different components of workaholism, while highlighting that this conclusion primarily applies to average and high levels of workaholism.

Conversely, employees characterized by moderately low (*Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) or very low (*Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) G-levels of workaholism tended to display a more unbalanced (higher or lower) configuration on the S-components of workaholism. More precisely, when employees display very low G-levels of workaholism (*Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*), they also tend to display low S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism. This result suggests that when G-levels of workaholism are very low, employees may even lack the drive and ability to fully engage their work. In contrast, at moderately low G-levels of workaholism, S-levels of motivational workaholism remain closer to, or slightly higher than, average and can be accompanied by either low (*Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) or high (*Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) S-levels of behavioral workaholism. These findings suggest that S-levels of motivational workaholism may start to increase before the other dimensions (perhaps reflecting a feeling of obligation to engage in one's work), and sometimes be coupled with a similar increase in S-levels of behavioral workaholism. In turn, high S-levels of cognitive workaholism only seem to emerge at higher G-levels. In contrast, emotional workaholism does not seem to deviate from G-levels of workaholism in any of the profiles, suggesting that this dimension has more value as an indicator of participants' G-levels of workaholism than as a conceptually distinct facet of workaholism.

It is finally important to note that the *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* profile was systematically the smallest (corresponding to 0.4% to 8.9% of the employees across subsamples), with the exception of Sample 4 where it came second. As this profile was linked to some of the most favorable covariates, this observation is worrisome. Fortunately, the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* profile was also reasonably small, corresponding to 8.0% to 17.5% of all employees, although it was slightly more prevalent among experienced employees (23.2%) in Sample 5 and managers (30.5%) in Sample 6. These results suggest that both very low and very high G-levels of workaholism are not very prevalent, with the exception of experienced employees and managers who seem more numerous to approach work with a high G-levels of workaholism. This last finding is in line with previous research showing that these types of employees do indeed tend to spend too much time on work activities, to work more than what is expected of them, and to be preoccupied with work even outside working hours (Clark et al., 2020). It should be acknowledged that managers

and experienced employees are also those most likely to experience increased responsibilities and shorter deadlines resulting from the recently observed work intensification phenomenon (Huyghebaert-Zouaghi et al., 2022).

Covariates of profile membership

Some profiles were more desirable in terms of covariates, although associations differed across covariates. For instance, *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* consistently displayed the lowest levels of WFC (together with the *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism* and the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*), whereas WFC levels were the highest among *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*. The *Normative* profile fell in between these two extremes with few additional noteworthy differences. Interestingly, *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed lower levels of WFC than *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism* in five out of six samples, and than *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* in three out of six samples.

These results support the harmful effects of high levels of workaholism (Clark et al., 2016, 2020) and the usefulness of accounting for G/S components of workaholism. Although G-levels of workaholism might be a central driver of WFC (Clark et al., 2016), G-levels cannot be considered in isolation from S-facets. For example, the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed lower levels of WFC in Samples 2 and 4 than the *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*. Thus, although the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed higher G-levels of workaholism, their lower S-levels of cognitive and emotional workaholism coupled with their higher S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism seemed to carry benefits from a WFC perspective. These findings suggest that high S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism (i.e., WE) might buffer the negative effects of more widespread G-levels of workaholism.

In relation to work passion, the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed the lowest levels of HP, whereas the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed the highest levels of HP. Similarly, the *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* and *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed higher levels of HP than those from the *Normative* profile. Moreover, the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed the highest levels of OP, followed by those with a *Normative* profile, by the *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, and by the *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism*. OP levels were the lowest among *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*. These results further document the construct validity of our workaholism profiles, while expanding upon previous research (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Lajom et al., 2018). They also confirm that G-workaholism is negatively linked to HP (Dalla Rosa & Vianello, 2020; Omar et al., 2021) as employees with high G-levels of workaholism, contrary to HP workers, feel compelled or driven to work and also have trouble detaching from work (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022; Vallerand & Houliort, 2019). In contrast, our results also confirm that G-workaholism is positively linked to

OP (Birkeland & Buch, 2015; Omar et al., 2021) as workaholics and OP workers both display high levels of controlled motivation (Vallerand, 2015; van Beek et al., 2011).

However, our reliance on Clark et al.'s (2020) more comprehensive operationalization of workaholism, coupled with our bifactor disaggregation of the G/S factors encompassed in this operationalization, allowed us to better understand the nature of associations between workaholism profiles and work passion. More specifically, when combined with moderately low G-levels of workaholism, average to moderately high S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism were associated with higher levels of HP. Indeed, *Motivated and Involved Employees with Moderately Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed characteristics similar to those of harmoniously passionate workers as they invested a great deal of effort in their work while retaining a certain amount of control over it to ensure that it does not take up an inordinate amount of space in their life (Vallerand, 2015). Interestingly, *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* displayed lower levels of OP than *Disengaged Employees with Low Global Levels of Workaholism*. Not surprisingly, *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* had lower G-levels of workaholism, while also displaying lower S-levels of motivational workaholism. This is aligned with the fact that obsessively passionate workers have a strong inner drive to work at all times and thus unable to maintain a healthy work–life balance (Vallerand & Houliort, 2019).

Generalizability across samples

Our results also supported the generalizability of the profiles and of their relations with the covariates across most samples and subsamples considered in this multi-sample investigation. However, some differences in profile size were observed in Samples 5 (experienced vs novice employees) and 6 (managers vs non-managers). More specifically, experienced employees were under-represented in the *Normative* profile, while managers were over-represented in the *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* profile. These results can be explained by the fact that experienced employees may have followed nonlinear and extremely diverse career paths, which implies a high degree of heterogeneity and a lower probability of presenting a balanced profile. In addition, managers have many responsibilities and have to cope with a heavy workload. They are also often required to work outside normal working hours to face all of their job demands, making it harder for them to stop thinking about work. Not surprisingly, they are thus more likely to display high G-levels of workaholism and S-levels of cognitive workaholism (Clark et al., 2016).

It is noteworthy that these differences were restricted to a limited number of comparisons and did not change the overall picture and generalizability of our findings. In this regard, these results contrast with previous studies suggesting that workaholism may depend on the characteristics of work contexts (Clark et al., 2016; Taris et al., 2012). However, our results remain aligned with past studies highlighting the harmful influence of a profile with high G-levels of workaholism on covariates in very distinct work settings (Gillet, Morin, Ndiaye, et al., 2022). More generally, by providing evidence of generalizability across six samples and 12 subsamples, our results contribute to the workaholism literature, supporting the desirability of generic interventions potentially useful for many workers without worrying that the nature of the profiles would vary across different types of employees. Our findings thus confirm that the person-centered results do not refer to ephemeral phenomena and can be used to guide generic interventions aiming to decrease workaholism (e.g., Meyer & Morin, 2016). However, future

research should more systematically test whether and how proposed interventions are effective in developing more adaptive profiles.

It also remains important to investigate whether and how similar profiles will be identified in other occupational groups (e.g., teaching, industry), cultures (e.g., Asia, Eastern Europe, and South America), research designs, or measures. For instance, numerous European and developed Western countries have recently implemented policies seeking to protect employees' personal life against intrusions from the work domain (e.g., flexible work arrangements, accessible and affordable daycare, the right to disconnect; Drobnič et al., 2010) which are likely to help limit workaholism (Clark et al., 2016) and support better work recovery (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2015). In contrast, in many Asian and developing countries, work tends to be characterized by long working hours and inflexible workplace policies that may increase employees' workaholism (Clark et al., 2020) and do not allow them to properly recover from their work-related efforts during off-time hours (Zeng & Chen, 2020). It is thus possible that the likelihood of identifying profiles characterized by low G-levels of workaholism (e.g., *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) might be lower in Asian and non-WEIRD countries than in developed Western countries. In addition, in some other countries, such as Russia, social policies do not guarantee the same level of freedom and liberty as in other Western or Asian countries (House et al., 2004). Employees working in these more restrictive cultures may thus be more likely to accept an organizational culture promoting presenteeism and/or competition (Simpson, 1998), which in turn might result in profiles characterized by higher workaholism (Gillet et al., 2017).

Limitations and future directions

There are some limitations to this study. First, we relied on self-reported data, which potentially increases the risk of self-report and social desirability biases. Future studies would do well to incorporate objective measures (e.g., organizational data on work performance and absenteeism) and multi-source data (e.g., supervisors, colleagues, and spouse). Second, we mobilized six samples of French employees. Future studies are thus needed to generalize our findings to different cultures, countries (especially non-WEIRD countries), and languages. They could also test whether cultural factors (e.g., attitudes toward work–life balance) might shape the prevalence or characteristics of certain profiles. Third, we used a cross-sectional research protocol that precludes assessment of the temporal stability of the workaholism profiles or the establishment of directionality or causality. Even if investigations provide support for some of the proposed associations (e.g., Clark et al., 2016; Gillet et al., 2017), reciprocal or inverse associations may also exist (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). Future studies should examine the nature of these relations using longitudinal methodologies better suited to substantiate the temporal ordering of the observed associations. Finally, we only considered the predictive role of demographics (sex, age, marital situation, parental situation, education level, organization size, work sector, tenure in the current position, organizational tenure, permanent or temporary contract, working full time or part time, supervisory role, and working remotely or onsite). It would be interesting for future research to incorporate other demographics (e.g., socio-economic status), individual characteristics (e.g., self-efficacy and psychological capital), and challenge (e.g., role complexity and responsibility), and hindrance (e.g., ambiguity, overload, and role conflict) demands as predictors, as well as a more diverse set of outcomes (e.g., burnout, job satisfaction and actual turnover).

Practical implications

Our results suggest that practitioners need to pay close attention to *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism*, which displayed the worst outcomes in this study. These employees displayed low levels of HP, suggesting that interventions to increase HP could be proposed to help employees stay away from this least desirable profile (especially managers and experienced workers who are more likely to display this profile), and more generally to support better functioning. Forest et al. (2012) tested the effect of an intervention aimed at developing employees' knowledge and use of their signature strengths at work. This intervention involved three activities: 1 - Identifying your five signature strengths; 2 - describing yourself at your personal best at work; and 3 - using two signature strengths in new ways at work. Results showed that this intervention successfully increased employees' use of signature strengths, which in turn were related to increases in HP and well-being.

Changes designed to increase work-home segmentation could also be leveraged. For instance, it may be interesting to state clear segmentation norms to help employees maintain healthy and balanced lifestyles, and to prevent the harmful effects of hyperconnectivity on workers' functioning (Kreiner, 2006). Offering flexible work arrangements (e.g., location and schedule flexibility, and supporting working parents) could also be an interesting avenue. Furthermore, modifications to decrease workload sustainably may help decrease the prevalence of *Preoccupied Employees with High Global Levels of Workaholism* over time (Huyghebaert et al., 2018). Particular attention needs to be paid to managers and experienced employees, to ensure that they do not become overwhelmed with responsibility and the associated workload. Interventions seeking to improve organizational support might also be useful. To nurture perceptions of organizational support, it may be helpful to promote a supportive culture to help supervisors break down the walls between themselves and employees. In such environments, supervisors and employees come to share power and to be more attuned to each other identity and culture, resulting in higher opportunities for the co-creation of learning experiences and knowledge. Promoting procedural justice is also a meaningful way to increase organizational support (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Finally, counseling or coaching should help reduce workaholism at the individual level (Van Gordon et al., 2017).

Moreover, given the more desirable levels of WFC observed among *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*, it would be important for organizations, supervisors, and the society more generally to consider implementing actions to help decreased employees' workaholism. Consulting the few non-workaholics may make it possible to identify the most useful (or harmful) practices in this regard. Such interventions may subsequently be expanded to help employees displaying other profiles to increase their likelihood of maintaining or developing a more desirable profile. Interventions may also be offered to employees with the most adaptive profile (i.e., *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism*) to help them decrease their likelihood of eventually experiencing a rise in workaholism. *Preoccupied Employees with Very Low Global Levels of Workaholism* are characterized by very low G-levels of workaholism together with low S-levels of motivational and behavioral workaholism. Yet, prior research has shown that these workaholism components may be reduced by abandoning organizational cultures based on harsh competition and bonus systems (e.g., Clark et al., 2016). Managers must also question their own behaviors and set a good example to their subordinates by fostering an overall organizational environment that rejects all forms of excessive working (Morkevičiūtė & Endriulaitienė, 2024). Finally, interventions to reduce anticipated

job demands through job redesign or realistic goal setting may be useful to maintain low levels of workaholism (Clark et al., 2021).

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT


The data that support the findings of this study are available upon reasonable request.

ETHICS STATEMENT

All procedures performed in the current study involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki Declaration and its later amendments. Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants involved in the study.

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ENDNOTE

¹ Sex was coded 0 for males and 1 for females; marital situation was coded 0 for single and 1 for couple; parental situation was coded 0 for participants with at least one child and 1 for participants with no children; education level was coded 0 for participants with no higher education and 1 for participants with a higher education diploma; organization size was coded 0 for participants working in a company with less than 500 employees and 1 for participants working in a company with 500 employees and more; work sector was coded 0 for public and 1 for private; permanent or temporary contract was coded 0 for permanent and 1 for temporary; working full time or part time was coded 0 for full-time and 1 for part-time; supervisory role was coded 0 for participants with a supervisory role and 1 for participants without a supervisory role; and working remotely or onsite was coded 0 for onsite employees and 1 for remote employees.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

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