Job Satisfaction and Subjective Well-Being As Determinants of Job Adaptation

Timothy A. Judge
Cornell University

Charles Hulin
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Job Satisfaction and Subjective Well-Being As Determinants of Job Adaptation

Abstract

An important controversy in the literature on employee withdrawal/adaptation concerns whether job satisfaction predicts behaviors that are manifestations of this construct. Although the area has not lacked for empirical research, Hulin (1991) has argued that several unresolved issues have limited the generalizations we can make about the role of job satisfaction in influencing isolated work behaviors. Hulin (1991) hypothesized that there is a general construct underlying many adaptive behaviors, including job withdrawal. When this general construct is assessed through combination of individual behaviors, the ability of constructs such as job satisfaction to influence job adaptation was hypothesized to increase over the prediction of specific behaviors. In the present study, individual behaviors thought to represent the adaptation construct were obtained through three different sources of data. Job satisfaction, subjective well-being, and other variables were hypothesized to influence the adaptation construct within the framework of a causal model. Results indicated support for both the job adaptation construct and its relation to job satisfaction and subjective well-being.

Keywords

job satisfaction, CAHRS, ILR, center, human resource, job, worker, advanced, labor market, satisfaction, employee, work, manage, management, training, HRM, employ, model, industrial relations

Disciplines

Business | Human Resources Management

Comments

Job Satisfaction and Subjective Well-Being

As Determinants of Job Adaptation

Timothy A. Judge

Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies

New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations

Cornell University

Charles Hulin

Department of Psychology

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Running Head: JOB ADAPTATION

Abstract

An important controversy in the literature on employee withdrawal/adaptation concerns whether job satisfaction predicts behaviors that are manifestations of this construct. Although the area has not lacked for empirical research, Hulin (1991) has argued that several unresolved issues have limited the generalizations we can make about the role of job satisfaction in influencing isolated work behaviors. Hulin (1991) hypothesized that there is a general construct underlying many adaptive behaviors, including job withdrawal. When this general construct is assessed through combination of individual behaviors, the ability of constructs such as job satisfaction to influence job adaptation was hypothesized to increase over the prediction of specific behaviors. In the present study, individual behaviors thought to represent the adaptation construct were obtained through three different sources of data. Job satisfaction, subjective well-being, and other variables were hypothesized to influence the adaptation construct within the framework of a causal model. Results indicated support for both the job adaptation construct and its relation to job satisfaction and subjective well-being.

Job Satisfaction and Subjective Well-Being

As Determinants of Job Adaptation

Absenteeism, turnover, and lateness have often been described by organizational researchers as examples of employee withdrawal (Beehr & Gupta, 1978; Porter & Steers, 1973; Youngblood, 1984). Researchers have offered several, often conflicting, theoretical explanations for the commonality among these behaviors. However, investigations of employee withdrawal have examined antecedents of these behaviors, typically studied one at a time, in isolation. Job satisfaction has often been related to a range of withdrawal behaviors, with inconsistent results (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Rosse & Miller, 1984).

Hulin (1991) has argued that the prediction of job behaviors in isolation is limiting both empirically and theoretically. It provides little basis for developing general theoretical constructs. It provides little basis for generalizing to other job behaviors that may be functional equivalents or manifestations of the same underlying, general behavioral construct. Hulin (1991) hypothesized a general hierarchical model of job adaptation in which the general behavioral propensity comprised a small number of job families and a larger number of individual behaviors. This behavioral adaptation construct was hypothesized to be predicted by job affect. The model holds the promise of improving the conceptual and empirical understanding of job withdrawal as a component of the more general adaptation construct. Hanisch and Hulin (1990) reported data that support several predictions made on the basis of the model.

The purpose of the present study is to hypothesize and test a causal model of job adaptation. Results from the test of the model will address several key questions relevant to the withdrawal/adaptation literature. First, is there a construct of job adaptation that underlies a wide range of work role behaviors? If so, will this general construct be predicted by job satisfaction? Third, although recent dispositional research has linked general affective states to job satisfaction, will those states influence job adaptation

independently and/or through their effect on job satisfaction? Finally, perceived labor market variables have been studied in the context of individual withdrawal behaviors, particularly turnover. What role do perceived labor market variables play in potentially adaptive behavioral decisions?

Job Adaptation

Hulin (1991) has defined job withdrawal as "the set of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation; they are behaviors designed to avoid participation in dissatisfying work situations (p. 54)." Hanisch (1990) and Hanisch and Hulin (1990) have distinguished between work withdrawal, where the individual avoids the work situation (e.g., absence, tardiness), and job withdrawal, where the individual withdraws completely from the job (e.g., quitting, retirement). Such a distinction was important to the content of Hanisch's (1990) model; the distinction was also supported empirically in research (Hanisch, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). However, because the attempt here is to investigate a general adaptation construct, the term job adaptation will refer to numerous withdrawal and other adaptive behaviors enacted by individuals in organizations.

Job adaptation may be organized hierarchically, in which the overall construct is composed of behavioral families, which in turn are composed of individual behaviors. Following Hulin (1991) and Rosse and Miller (1984), job adaptation is thought of as comprising responses to job satisfaction that covary because of their potential in increasing one's job satisfaction, or equivalently, decreasing one's dissatisfaction. This definition emphasizes the intentionality of these behaviors; it is assumed that individuals enact these behaviors believing that they will decrease job dissatisfaction or increase satisfaction. Whether such behaviors actually function as intended (actually decrease job dissatisfaction) is a different, although obviously important, issue (Judge, 1990).

The empirical data regarding the significance of job satisfaction in predicting isolated withdrawal behaviors are inconsistent. With respect to absenteeism, some

empirical data indicate a significant negative association between absence and job satisfaction (Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Waters & Roach, 1973). On the other hand, some research has suggested no significant link (Ilgen & Hollenback, 1977; Martocchio, 1989; Rosse, 1983). These inconclusive findings have not been resolved by meta-analytic work on the subject. Hackett and Guion (1985) reported an average correlation between job satisfaction and absence of only -.09. Scott and Taylor (1985), including a smaller set of studies in their meta-analysis, corrected the estimated correlations for measurement error. They reported a non-corrected correlation between job satisfaction and absence of -.15; when corrected for unreliability in job satisfaction and absence, the correlation effectively doubled (-.29). However, both estimates are consistent with a theoretical unifactor model of adaptation in which absence is only one manifestation of the underlying adaptation construct. Biasing effects of low base rates, unreliability, and other factors may account for the relatively low empirical correlation observed (Hulin, 1991).

The relationship between turnover and job satisfaction also has been subject to contradictory findings, although the weight of the evidence suggests that the relationship is a reliable one (Hom & Hulin, 1981; Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978). Rosse and Miller (1984) report that global work satisfaction predicts turnover, but satisfaction with facets of the job show inconsistent relations. For example, satisfaction with supervision was negatively associated with turnover in half the studies reviewed by Rosse and Miller (1984); the other half reported no significant relations. Porter and Steer's (1973) review of the job satisfaction - turnover literature led them to conclude that job satisfaction was not an important determinant of turnover. Rosse's (1983) and Hulin's (1991) reviews of the literature suggested the opposite conclusion.

Lateness has been studied less than absence and turnover, also with inconsistent empirical results. Adler and Golan (1981) found a significant negative relationship between lateness and job satisfaction. Rosse (1983) found no significant relationship.

Job satisfaction has been linked to other specific behaviors that seem to manifest an adaptive or coping mechanism. However, these specific behaviors were not generally considered to represent a common construct. Examples include: unionization (Getman, Goldberg, & Herman, 1976; Hamner & Smith, 1978; Schriesheim, 1978; Zalesny, 1985), drug abuse (Mangione & Quinn, 1975; Perone, DeWaard, & Baron, 1979), and retirement (Hanisch, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990).

Hulin (1991), building upon Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya (1985), has argued that using job satisfaction to predict isolated behavioral manifestations of adaptation limits development of any general construct. Hulin (1991) contends that many individual behaviors do not occur in isolation; specific behaviors often are manifestations of an underlying construct, but their bivariate relations are underspecified in most theoretical models. This is a departure from most studies on employee withdrawal, and offers the promise of addressing several methodological and theoretical problems in the withdrawal literature.

The base rate of occurrence of most individual withdrawal behaviors is quite low. The individual behaviors often have very positively skewed distributions (Harrison & Hulin, 1989). Interpretation of correlation or regression coefficients (particularly when one seeks to test them for significance) is not straightforward where normality cannot be assumed. Uncorrected parametric analyses of satisfaction as an antecedent of an isolated behavioral response will normally yield consistent underestimates of the underlying relationship. In fact, the distributional properties of these behaviors may explain the inconsistent results with respect to absence, lateness, and turnover reviewed earlier. Olsson, Drasgow, and Dorans (1982) have reviewed the problems inherent in interpreting these correlations.

One possible solution to this methodological problem is to aggregate across behaviors. Including a variety of conceptually relevant behaviors improves both the distributional properties and the theoretical basis of the behavioral construct (Hulin, 1991;

Humphreys, 1960; Roznowski & Hanisch, 1990). Rather than predicting isolated behaviors, empirical research might benefit from a consideration of individual behaviors as manifestations of an underlying general construct, and focussing on the antecedents, consequences, and correlates of the construct. Naylor, Pritchard, and Ilgen (1980) also have contended that behavioral decisions (of which adaptation is an example) should not be examined in isolation. The question is not simply: do I quit or not? Rather, do I: quit, be absent, miss meetings, steal or use equipment for personal gain, join a union, moonlight on the job, chat with co-workers, all, some, or none? If distancing oneself from work can be manifested by differing behaviors, a complete theory of employee adaptation should incorporate these multiple manifestations. The variance of this general construct would be dominated by the covariances among the individual manifestations rather than the specific and unique variance associated with each behavior. Just as the construct of job satisfaction is composed of specific facets, the adaptation construct may be composed of specific behaviors.

We propose that the general job adaptation construct can be estimated by aggregating specific behaviors to create a general behavioral construct that can be influenced by general attitude measures. This proposal appears to fly in the face of current theory and practice in the attitude - behavior research area that stresses the advantage of specific behavioral intentions (Dulany, 1962; Fishbein, 1979; Martocchio, 1989) or goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981; Ryan, 1970) as predictors of specific behaviors. However, the conflict with the theoretical bases of current practice is more apparent than real. Theorists from Thurstone (1931) to Doob (1947) to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) have stressed that general attitudes indeed predict general behavioral propensities. Problems are created when we attempt to predict specific behaviors using general attitude measures, not when we use general attitudes as antecedents of general behavioral measures. These principles were exploited with generally positive results by Hanisch (1990), Hanisch and Hulin (1990), and Roznowski and Hanisch (1990).

The model of job adaptation introduced by Hulin (1991) and Hulin et al. (1985) represents a reformulation of the state of the withdrawal literature. Absent from the model, however, is any explicit inclusion of personality or dispositional constructs. Several researchers have examined personality correlates of various facets of withdrawal with modest success (Bernardin, 1977; Ferris, Youngblood, & Yates, 1985; Muchinsky & Tuttle, 1979). Ferris et al. (1985) argued that a primary reason for the modest effects has been the atheoretical nature of the investigations of the effects of personality on withdrawal. The dispositional approach, which argues that general affective states influence job satisfaction and work behaviors (Judge, 1990; Judge & Hulin, in press; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986), offers a general theoretical framework that may integrate personality and job attitude/behavior research. As with the relation between job satisfaction and job adaptation, the generality of an overall affective construct should make it well suited to predict job adaptation.

Because subjective well-being appears to be causally related to job satisfaction (Judge & Hulin, in press), subjective well-being may influence job adaptation through its effect on job satisfaction (an indirect effect). Furthermore, many individuals unhappy with their lives, in an effort to cope with personally unpleasant life circumstances, can be expected to attempt to change their lives (Holahan & Moos, 1987). These change efforts likely involve both work and nonwork responses. Therefore, subjective well-being also may have a direct effect on job adaptation. The addition of subjective well-being as a manifestation of dispositional states to Hulin et al.'s (1985) model may strengthen the model's empirical and conceptual foundations by adding a dispositional construct that may stimulate adaptive responses.

Causal Model of Job Adaptation

Hypothesized Measurement Model

A consideration of a relatively wide range of behaviors manifesting adaptation to one's job is likely to improve the empirical and conceptual basis of adaptation. Humphreys

(1960) and Roznowski and Hanisch (1990) have made similar arguments about the benefits of theoretically relevant breadth in measures of constructs. Empirically, a construct manifesting many behaviors is likely to have both better distributions than a single behavioral instantiation of the construct and better relations with relevant predictors. Conceptually, specific dissatisfactions often lead to different adaptive behaviors (Hanisch, 1990; Rosse & Miller, 1984; Roznowski & Hanisch, 1990), but the different adaptive behaviors may be idiosyncratically selected. Specific behaviors may be enacted by individuals or may be suppressed for organizational or personal reasons. For example, an organizational absenteeism policy that punishes members for absences or professional, departmental, or personal norms against absenteeism may effectively block this specific behavior. However, dissatisfied employees may adapt to their work or job in other ways (e.g., spend more of the day chatting with co-workers about trivia). It is important to aggregate across behaviors to capture the full range of behaviors manifesting the construct that may be enacted by employees.

Hulin (1991), expanding upon the model introduced by Hulin et al. (1985), hypothesized four families of adaptive behaviors. One of the four behavioral families is attempts to reduce work role inclusion. This is what traditionally has been investigated as withdrawal, where the individual physically separates him- or herself from the work environment. Exemplars include: tardiness, absenteeism, quitting, and retirement. Covariation between these behaviors has often been found, lending support to the argument that they manifest a common latent construct (see Hanisch, 1990; Hulin, 1991; and Rosse & Miller, 1984; for reviews). As explained later, absence and turnover also were assessed in the present study by archival sources; these hypothesized behavioral representations of the adaptation construct are displayed in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

We have also included variables assumed to reflect the other job adaptation families discussed by Hulin (1991). These include asking for a transfer to change one's work role. Supervisors were asked to evaluate a range of specific behaviors that might reflect attempts to increase one's job outcomes, including using company supplies for personal use. Finally, missing meetings, chatting with co-workers, and shirking (Jones, 1984; Weldon & Mustari, 1988) were assumed to be possible reflections of attempts to decrease one's job inputs. These behaviors were included to increase the breadth and generality of the job adaptation construct and to investigate empirical relations among reports, by self and by supervisors, as well as archival measures of several possible manifestations of these behaviors. Figure 1 displays these hypothesized indicators of the job adaptation construct.

The behaviors measured in this study may be perceived as encompassing only "negative" behaviors. Although Steers and Mowday (1981) have pointed out that what is deemed as negative depends on the perspective of the researcher, several "citizenship" behaviors (Organ, 1988) also were measured. It is possible that they represent the other side of the behavioral coin. Those who do not offer to help others when needed and refuse to give advance notice when late, for example, may be withdrawing by doing the absolute minimum necessary to get by on the job.

One way of testing the efficacy of the job adaptation construct is to test the existence of behavioral families. Results by Hanisch (1990), Hanisch and Hulin (1990), and Roznowski, Rosse, and Miller (1991) suggested that there are at least two families of adaptive behaviors. The authors then used facet satisfactions to predict behavioral families. Within the framework of a hierarchical model of adaptation is the assumption that these families covary and define an overall adaptation construct. It may be possible to summarize these families by a general adaptation construct. The disadvantage in doing this is that some potentially useful information is lost. For example, it may be interesting to investigate the varying effects of different satisfaction facets on different behavioral families.

One advantage of testing the existence of an overall adaptation construct is parsimony. Parsimony, or summarizing empirical relations between multiple constructs by employing fewer constructs, is an objective of scientific research (Schwab, 1980). Thus, conceptualizing an overall job adaptation construct in no way implies that the conceptualization of behavioral families is inadequate. Rather, such a conceptualization recognizes the advantages of summarizing relationships with fewer rather than more constructs. A second advantage of testing an single adaptation construct is based on our earlier review of the benefits of matching the generality of behaviors to their antecedents. If one wishes to investigate the effect of a very general affective construct, such as job satisfaction or subjective well-being, on behavior, the generality of the behavior(s) studied should match the generality of the affective constructs. Thus, if one is interested in the effect of overall job satisfaction or subjective well-being on adaptive behaviors, it is necessary to employ a general adaptation construct. The scientific cost of this parsimony is paid in the coin of some discarded information and relationships between specific antecedents and narrower behavioral constructs or families.

Hypothesized Structural Model

Figure 2 represents the hypothesized structural model of job adaptation. Justification of the links in the model follows.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

Job Satisfaction to Job Adaptation. In Hulin's (1991) model, job satisfaction is hypothesized to be a precursor to job adaptation behaviors. Empirical evidence has often (albeit not consistently) supported this proposition with specific behaviors. Consistent with the evidence and Hulin's (1991) arguments about the benefits of matching the general phenomenon of job satisfaction to the general phenomenon of adaptation, job satisfaction, as a general attitude, is a hypothesized cause of job adaptation, as shown in Figure 2.

Subjective well-being to Job Adaptation. Borrowing from Diener (1984), subjective well-being is defined as an ongoing state of psychological wellness, comprising both cognitive judgments and affective reactions. Organizational researchers desiring to measure dispositional affect have often used negative affectivity (Watson & Clark, 1984) as a construct (Brief, Burke, George, Robinson, & Webster, 1988; George, 1989; Levin & Stokes, 1989). Past research has shown the two constructs to be closely related (Diener, 1990). Subjective well-being is used here because recent research has shown that the independence of positive and negative affectivity may be an artifact of how affect is measured (Diener, 1990); positive and negative affectivity, as well as life satisfaction, are subsumed by the subjective well-being construct.

Those generally unhappy with their lives might be expected to seek to change their current life situation. Researchers in the personality literature often call this process "mood repair" (Holahan & Moos, 1987). Part of this change might entail withdrawing from the job, because of the importance of work to individuals' overall well-being, and because such efforts may have been successful in the past. George (1989) has linked mood at work, as an outcome of dispositional affect, to absence. If general affective states, such as mood at work, influence individual withdrawal behaviors such as absence, it is relevant to investigate if general affective states will influence a general adaptive construct.

Thus, we hypothesize that individuals with low subjective well-being will engage in adaptive behaviors over and above the effect accounted for by job dissatisfaction. A significant part of the effect of subjective well-being on job adaptation may operate through job satisfaction. It is hypothesized that subjective well-being will have both a significant direct and indirect effect, as mediated through job satisfaction, on job adaptation. The hypothesized direct link is represented in Figure 2.

Labor Market Influences. March and Simon (1958) emphasized ease of movement in the labor market as an antecedent of job attitudes and withdrawal and Mobley (1977) identified the availability of acceptable alternatives as an important influence on

individuals' decisions to leave an organization. These may not always be the same. For example, an individual may perceive many available alternatives, but, because of dual career issues, expected search time which varies by job and occupation, or relocation difficulties, may perceive mobility restrictions.

The importance of the perception of employment opportunity and ease of movement with respect to turnover has been reviewed by Steel and Griffeth (1989). Although past research has suggested the impact of these variables on turnover has not been substantial, Steel and Griffeth (1989) have provided evidence that the base rate of turnover, among other study artifacts, has suppressed the obtained empirical estimates. Including turnover as one of several manifestations of a general construct is one means to reduce this base rate problem.

The role of perceived employment opportunities has been linked to other adaptive behaviors. Shapiro and Stiglitz (1984) stressed alternative employment opportunity as an influence on employee shirking. With respect to absence, Martocchio (1989) and Martocchio and Judge (1991) identified the perception of employment opportunities as influential in the decision to be absent. Rhodes and Steers (1990) also suggested that labor market conditions may influence absence decisions because in poor economic conditions, "employees might be more likely to do their best to attend so as not to risk being discharged (p. 62)." The same arguments also may apply to several other adaptive behaviors (missing meetings, chatting with co-workers, lateness). Individuals may fear losing their jobs in an unfavorable labor market if caught engaging in these behaviors. Therefore, it is hypothesized that the greater the perceived ease of movement and availability of alternatives, the more willing the individual will be to engage in adaptive behaviors (see Figure 2).

Other Causal Links. Number of dependent children, as a manifestation of family responsibilities, was hypothesized to be a significant influence on job adaptation. Those who have dependent children might be expected to be absent, be late, and miss meetings

more often due to parental duties (Brooke, 1986; Martocchio & Judge, 1991; Steers & Rhodes, 1978). Age was hypothesized to affect job adaptation negatively. This follows from the absenteeism literature that has often hypothesized that older workers are absent less often than younger workers (George, 1989; Rhodes & Steers, 1990). Martocchio (1989) found that older workers were significantly less likely to have absence intentions, and significantly less likely to have both paid and unpaid absences. Other behaviors may be affected by age as well. Hanisch (1990) found that age was negatively associated with lateness, absence, and turnover intentions. Past research on job search by U.S. workers indicates that job changes are more likely to occur early in a persons' working career (Hall, 1982). Because of a reluctance to enter the job market again, or reduced employment opportunities, older workers might also be more likely to fear discharge that might result if they repeatedly shirked, chatted with co-workers, were late, and so forth. It is reasonable to expect they will be less likely to risk their job by engaging in adaptive behaviors. Older workers also may have adapted over time psychologically and non-behaviorally to dissatisfying jobs by, for example, adjusting their expectations to be more in line with what the job provides. Thus, older workers might display greater adjustment to work, probably due in part to their past experiences (Garrison & Muchinsky, 1977; George, 1989). They might therefore be expected to enact fewer adaptive behaviors. Figure 2 shows the hypothesized causal link from age to job adaptation.

Method

Setting and Subjects

The setting for this research was a regional medical clinic in the Midwest. Subjects (N = 255) worked in 32 departments in the main and branch clinics. Sixty-five percent of the respondents came from the main clinic. Subjects were registered nurses without B.S.N. (45%), registered nurses with B.S.N. (14%), licensed practical nurses (14%), medical office assistants (16%), and laboratory technicians or clinical specialists (11%). Education of the respondents ranged from a high school diploma (11%) to a master's degree (11%). Hourly

wage rates ranged from $4.15 to $17.43, with an average hourly wage equal to $9.60. Seventy percent of the respondents were married, and 58% had one or more children. Age ranged from 21 to 70 years; the average age was about 37. Average number of hours worked per week was 37. Professional experience ranged from newly employed to 50 years, with an average of approximately 12 years. The narrow range of race (98% white) and sex (99% female) may limit generalizability of the results to more demographically diverse organizations.

Measures

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by the revised version (Roznowski, 1989) of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Coefficient alpha reliability estimates for the JDI subscales were as follows: work = .85; supervision = .91; co-workers = .86; pay = .88; and promotion opportunities = .91.

Subjective well-being. Subjective well-being was operationalized by the following five measures, with coefficient alpha reliability estimates in parentheses: 1) a modified version of the Affects Balance Scale, which contains 22 adjectives describing an individual's emotion in the last several months (e.g., hopeful, cheerful, bitter, miserable; alpha = .92); 2) the Fordyce (1977) percent happy item, a single item measure which assesses mean frequency of affective feelings by having individuals evaluate the percent time they are happy on average; 3) a modified 9-item version of Underwood and Froming's (1980) scale, where individuals evaluate the frequency with which they experience positive and negative affective states (alpha = .91); 4) the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985), a 5-item scale of overall satisfaction with one's life (alpha = .86); 5) the G.M. Faces life satisfaction measure, a single-item instrument developed by Kunin (1955).

To further reduce the possibility that overlapping method variance may be responsible for the relations observed between subjective well-being and reported job behaviors, a "significant other" evaluated the focal employee's subjective well-being using

the same five scales the focal employee completed. Such a multi-source sample of subjective well-being yields a more heterogeneous measure of the construct (Roznowski & Hanisch, 1990) and also should minimize social desirability, halo, and response set tendencies (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1989). By relying on multiple sources and methods to measure subjective well-being, job satisfaction, and job adaptation, more confidence can be placed in the substantive interpretations based on the results. Reliability estimates for the significant other scales were very similar to the estimates for the self report scales.

Labor market alternatives. Perceptions of the labor market were assessed by specific questions in the employee survey. Perceived ease of movement was assessed through two questions: the estimated time it would take to find a job of comparable pay, and the estimated time it would take to find a job of comparable working conditions. These two questions, assessed on a 1- to 6-point scale (1 = a day or two; 6 = more than two years), were summed to form an index variable. The coefficient alpha for the scale was .68. Available employment opportunities were assessed by asking the individual to provide their best estimate of their available employment opportunities in their immediate living area at the present time (1 = no alternatives; 5 = many alternatives).

Age and number of children under 18. Respondent age and number of dependent children under 18 were assessed by questions on the focal employee survey.

Job adaptation. Job adaptation was assessed by three independent sources of data. First, the focal employee completed a survey eliciting behavioral intentions (Fishbein, 1979) and reports of engaging in the behaviors in the past (Hanisch, 1990; Rosse & Hulin, 1985). Behavioral intentions and reported propensities to engage in behaviors generally have been found to be strong predictors of actual behaviors (Hom & Hulin, 1981; Martocchio, 1989; Mobley et al., 1978). Multiple specific behaviors were sampled to increase generality and bandwidth of the resulting measures of job withdrawal/adaptation (i.e., using company supplies or facilities for personal use, missing meetings, chatting with

co-workers, quitting, being absent, being tardy, retiring, asking for a transfer, shirking, and citizenship).

However, propensity information also suffers to some degree from the distributional problems discussed earlier. Sampling across behaviors, as well as employing a mix of intentions and reports of past behaviors to form a composite propensity index, should yield a theoretically relevant sampling of the indicators of the latent construct with improved distributional properties. Roznowski and Hanisch (1990) have discussed the advantage of building systematic, theory - relevant heterogeneity into such scales.

Job behaviors were also measured by supervisor ratings. Six months after the survey was administered to respondents, supervisors were asked to rate the frequency of the following behaviors for each employee: shirking; volunteering to do things not formally required by the job (reverse scored); helping others (reverse scored); lateness; absence; giving advance notice if going to be absent (reverse scored); taking breaks; helping newcomers adjust (reverse scored); chatting with co-workers about non-work issues; missing meetings; assisting supervisor with duties (reverse scored); using phone or supplies for personal use. Finally, archival data on turnover and number of days absent (during the 10 months following administration of the survey) were collected. The annualized turnover rate was 18%; the annualized average number of days absent was 4.03. Using these three independent sources for information on adaptation propensity avoids sole reliance on self report data and should yield a valid and uncontaminated estimate of the underlying construct.

Procedure

Surveys were administered to employees during hour-long sessions, coordinated by department supervisors, on a voluntary basis during their work hours at the clinics. Approximately 320 employees were employed in departments covered by the survey. Two hundred fifty-five usable surveys were completed, representing a response rate of 80%. Information from department supervisors suggested that most of those not participating

were either on leave or unavailable for reasons beyond their control. At the beginning of the survey sessions subjects were briefed as to the purpose and intended use of the study. It was emphasized that participation was voluntary and subjects were free to withdraw their participation at any time during the administration. Absolute confidentiality of the results was assured.

A survey with instructions to the significant other and a self-addressed, stamped envelope were provided for the subjects to take with them after completing the survey. The instructions on the significant other survey emphasized the complete confidentiality of the responses. Subjects were told that upon completion of a usable significant other survey, they would be eligible to win one of 30 prizes of $25 each. An inducement was considered necessary because the significant other completed the survey on his or her own time. One hundred sixty-eight surveys were returned by significant others, representing a response rate of 66%.

Supervisor ratings were collected approximately six months after the survey administration. Ten months after completion of the focal employee survey, archival records on turnover and number of days absent in the past 10 months were collected.

Covariance Structure Model

The measurement and structural components of the covariance structure model were estimated separately. This strategy reduces the number of parameters to be estimated simultaneously, an important consideration in covariance structure models (Gerbing & Anderson, 1987; Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982). Further, Burt (1976) has argued that simultaneous estimation results in "interpretational confounding," which he defines as "the assignment of empirical meaning to an unobserved variable which is other than the meaning assigned to it by an individual a priori to estimating unknown parameters (p. 4)." Anderson and Gerbing (1988) noted that interpretational confounding can be minimized by the two-step process of first estimating the measurement model, then estimating the

structural model, because no constraints are placed on structural concepts when estimating the measurement model.

Several statistics provide information on the fit of the model. The most widely used measure is the chi-square (X^2) statistic. Marsh and Hocevar (1985), Carmines and McIver (1981), and Hertig (1985) have suggested that a chi-square to degrees of freedom (df) ratio of 2 or less suggests a good fit. Other commonly used fit statistics include the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), root-mean-square residual (RMSR), and coefficient of determination (R^2). With complex models, adjusted goodness-of-fit indices of at least .70 and root-mean-square residuals of at most .10 are implied as adequate by recent research (cf. Mumford, Weeks, Harding, & Fleishman, 1988; Rock, Bennett, & Jirele, 1988; Vance, MacCallum, Coovert, & Hedge, 1988). It must be recognized that all these values for interpreting fit indices represent rules of thumb. The meanings of goodness-of-fit indices and root-mean-square residuals are not founded in statistical distribution theory; their distributions are unknown. These social conventions for assessing goodness of fit of data to theoretical models must therefore be interpreted and used with caution.

Results

Because job satisfaction, subjective well-being, and job adaptation were all assessed with multiple measurements, the full 42-variable correlation matrix that served as input to the LISREL program is not reported; it is available upon request. However, correlations between the hypothesized predictors of job adaptation and the specific behavioral indicators of the adaptation construct are provided in Table 1. Models estimated using sample covariances yielded equivalent results to the models estimated using correlations.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Table 1 reveals that the correlations among the behaviors are moderate, although generally significant. Several factors may explain the modest correlations. First, it was argued earlier that low base rate behaviors are likely to display weak relationships with other variables because of the biasing effects of their distributional properties. This problem is exacerbated when correlating two low base rate behaviors. Second, the correlations in Table 1 are not corrected for unreliability. Finally, it is possible that these behaviors do not strongly covary because they are partly substitutes for one another, or that organizational policies and personal preferences discourage some behaviors but not others. For example, an organization may punish its members for being absent, or a worker may be introverted, which obviously decreases his or her likelihood of chatting with co-workers. On the other hand, caution should be exercised in interpreting the correlations. Because correlations serve as input into the LISREL algorithm, interpretation of the results of the covariance structure analysis should not be replaced by interpretation of the correlational data. If the correlations were very weak and not in the expected direction, the results of the covariance structure analysis could not support the hypothesized model.

Although not reported in Table 1, the correlations between the self reports of job adaptive behaviors and corresponding supervisor assessments of these behaviors were significant. Correlations between assessments of the same behaviors by the supervisor (single-item measures of each behavior) and respondent (multiple-item measures of each behavior), corrected for unreliability, ranged from .35 for citizenship to .45 for lateness. Because the supervisors evaluated each behavior with only a single item, the distributional problems with single-item measures of behavior were avoided by aggregating supervisor evaluations of the specific behaviors. Finally, the corrected correlation between self reports and significant other reports of subjective well-being was .61.

Models Tested

The archival measures of number of days absent and turnover were included in separate model estimations because those who left the organization may not have had

absence data comparable to those who did not quit. For example, an employee with 5 days of absences who quit 2 weeks after the survey administration should not be treated as having the same number of absences as a worker with 5 days of absences still employed by the organization. Therefore, those who had left the organization between the first and last waves of data collection were excluded from the analysis that included the archival measure of number of days absent.

Measurement Estimates

Table 2 presents results from the hypothesized measurement model. For presentation purposes the parameter estimates for the model estimated using the archival measure of number of days absent and the archival measure of turnover are presented together. The fit statistics and parameter estimates for both runs were very similar. For example, although the chi-square statistic is lower using number of days absent, all other indices (GFI, AGFI, RMSR) are identical to those obtained using turnover. The largest difference in parameter estimates was .05; the next largest was .02. Most were identical. Because of the similarity, only the parameter estimates for the turnover model are reported. However, the fit statistics for both models are reported in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 About Here

As indicated in Table 2, the sample size for the model using the archival measure of turnover was 155. The sample size for the model using the archival measure of number of days absent was 118. As noted by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), guidelines on minimum sample size for covariance structure modeling have not been determined. Past research has suggested that sample sizes of 50 or 100 are often sufficient to interpret meaningfully the results from covariance structure models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hayduk, 1987), although the validity of such cutoffs depend on the complexity of the model. Bentler (1985) suggested that a sample size to parameter ratio of 5 or more is sufficient to achieve

reliable estimates in maximum likelihood estimation. Because the average sample size to estimated parameter ratio in the present study was 5.22, the sample size was considered adequate for the analyses (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988). The primary implication of the sample sizes used in the present study are larger standard errors. As noted by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), this does not present a problem in statistical inference. One way to detect an adequate sample size post-hoc is to examine if the standard errors are small enough to be of practical use (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Examining Table 2 (also see Figure 3), it does not appear that the standard errors are excessive. An overall measure of the degree to which parameters are estimated with error, the root-mean-square residual, was at an acceptable level by the criteria discussed earlier. Finally, leaving the data from the significant others out of the analysis increases the sample size to 242 for the estimation with the archival measure of turnover and 185 for the estimation with the archival measure of absence, but does very little to change the parameter estimates and fit statistics. Thus, the sample size was judged adequate for the analysis.

The fit statistics displayed in Table 2 are within the limits discussed earlier, indicating an adequate fit. Although there is variability in the loadings of the specific response variables on the general behavioral construct, the loadings are significant, with few exceptions. Retirement did not load significantly on the adaptation construct. This is not surprising given the age distribution of the sample (the average age was 37; less than 8% of the respondents were over 50). Because the sample is generally too young to consider retirement, this may indicate that except for older workers, retirement is not one of the primary means of job adaptation.

Citizenship (reverse scored) also did not load significantly on the adaptation construct. These results are consistent with the arguments of Organ (1988) and Brief and Motowidlo (1986), that citizenship behaviors do not simply represent adaptation in the converse. They may represent "going above and beyond the call of duty," as these authors

have argued. The results also are consistent with findings by Roznowski et al. (1991), who found near zero correlations between adaptive and citizenship behaviors.

Finally, the loading of archival absence on the general adaptation construct (significant at p < .10) is relatively weak. This also is not surprising given the characteristics of the sample. As indicated earlier, a positive correlation between absenteeism and turnover has often been found (Beehr & Gupta, 1978; Rosse, 1983). In fact, in the present sample the correlation between a composite absence variable corrected for attenuation and turnover intention is .28. Given this, removing those individuals who had left the organization from the analysis that included the archival measure of absence excludes the very people most likely to be absent. Thus, the relatively low factor loading of the number of days absent on the construct, estimated in a sample after removing those who had terminated, may be due to the low base of rate of this variable for those who did not leave the organization. In fact, estimating a model using the archival measures of both days absent and turnover yields a factor loading on the archival measure of days absent of .21 (p < .01).

Measurement loadings for job satisfaction and subjective well-being were derived from an estimation where all five measures of job satisfaction and subjective well-being, and all the measures of job adaptation, were loaded on their respective constructs. The measurement loadings on the job satisfaction and subjective well-being constructs were all significant (p < .01), and the overall fit of the model was acceptable (X^2/df = 1.4; AGFI = .81; RMSR = .07). Further, the specific measurement loadings on the adaptation construct were very similar to those reported in Table 2 (the average difference was less than .02).

An alternative way to estimate the measurement model is to assess the adaptation construct using data drawn from the self reports, supervisor evaluations, and archival data relevant to each behavior. For example, rather than using supervisor evaluation of adaptive behaviors as an aggregate measure of all adaptive behaviors, the supervisor's evaluation of each specific behavior was combined with the self reports and the relevant

archival data. This approach generates, for instance, an absence variable consisting of self report, supervisor, and archival measures. This measurement model yielded equivalent results to those reported in Table 2. Where differences did arise this model yielded slightly higher factor loadings than the model reported in Table 2 (e.g., .15 for retirement versus the .08 value reported in Table 2). Further, because combining the different sources confounds the source of data with the behavior, it was thought to be more informative to report the supervisor and archival loadings separately. In sum, both the fit statistics and parameter estimates (factor loadings) support the hypothesized measurement model. The data support the existence of an underlying construct of job adaptation manifested by many different work role behaviors and measured by three different sources of data.

Structural Estimates

Table 3 provides the fit statistics for the structural model. In order to specify this model properly, job satisfaction and subjective well-being were allowed to influence one another, consistent with past dispositional and job satisfaction research (Judge, 1990). Fit statistics for the model estimated with the archival measure of turnover and for the model estimated with the archival measure of absence are reported. The results indicate that the structural model fits the data reasonably well. As a result, it is possible to interpret the specific parameter estimates in the model.

Insert Table 3 About Here

Figure 3 shows the results from the structural model estimation. The hypothesis that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of adaptation is supported by the results (beta = -.38; p < .01). Employees disliking their jobs were more likely to engage in adaptation behaviors on the job. The hypothesis that subjective well-being is a significant influence on adaptation propensity also received support (beta = -.25; p < .01). Those unhappy with their lives in general were more likely to engage in job adaptation behaviors. This effect

was independent of the influence of job satisfaction on job adaptation. Age and number of children significantly influenced job adaptation in the hypothesized direction. The influence of the perceived labor market variables on job adaptation was not significant. That influence remained non-significant even when the two variables (ease of movement and alternative opportunities) were pooled to form an overall perception of the labor market construct.

Insert Figure 3 About Here

Finally, Table 4 describes the total effects of job satisfaction on the specific adaptation behaviors. Total effects refer to the total (direct plus indirect) effect of one variable on another. The metric of total effects, when a standardized solution is obtained, ranges in absolute value from 0 (no effect) to 1 (complete determination). Although direct effects are obviously important in causal models, indirect effects, or the effect of one variable on another as filtered through a third variable, can be equally important (Hayduk, 1987). Standard error estimates for indirect and total effects recently have been incorporated into the LISREL program (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989), allowing indirect and total effects to be tested for significance. The total effects of subjective well-being and job satisfaction on each specific adaptation behavior are statistically significant, although the strength of the effects varies. The significance of the total effects suggests that even if one is interested only in the specific adaptation behaviors, job satisfaction and subjective well-being exert significant but modest effects on these behaviors. In addition to significant direct effects on job adaptation, subjective well-being (indirect effect = -.25; $p < .01$) and job satisfaction (indirect effect = -.15; $p < .01$) also exerted significant indirect effects through each other on the general construct of job adaptation. This makes the total effects of job satisfaction and subjective well-being on job adaptation, displayed in the last row of Table 4, relatively strong (-.53 and -.50, respectively) and significant ($p < .01$).

Insert Table 4 About Here

A self report only model also was estimated. Although the fit statistics of this model were somewhat better than the model presented earlier (e.g., GFI = .85; RMSR = .07; R^2 = .45), and the parameter estimates were in general somewhat higher (e.g., the coefficient from job satisfaction to job adaptation was -.48), overall the results were quite similar. Reliance on only self report measures of adaptive behaviors led to the same conclusions the model estimated with three sources of data on adaptive behaviors.

In order to describe differences in how satisfied versus dissatisfied employees adapt, standardized scores on the specific adaptation behaviors were computed for the highest and lowest quartiles of job satisfaction scores. The following standardized scores were observed for the top quartile of satisfaction scores, with the bottom quartile of job satisfaction scores in parentheses: shirk = -.55 (+.60); transfer = -.75 (+.83); retire = -.56 (+.40); quit = -.82 (+.93); late = -.92 (+.60); miss meetings = -.40 (+.38); chat with co-workers = -.21 (+.21); absent = -.41 (+.48); citizenship (reverse scored) = -.08 (+.36); supervisory evaluation of employee adaptive behaviors = -.28 (+.31); absence - archival = +.05 (+.20); turnover - archival = -.28 (+.34). This indicates a pattern of adaptive responses between satisfied and dissatisfied workers that is generally symmetrical and consistent across behaviors. Employees dissatisfied with their jobs engage in the behaviors more than average; satisfied employees engage in these behaviors less than average. The consistency of this pattern across behaviors illustrates the multiple behavioral consequences of job dissatisfaction.

Hanisch and Hulin (1991) and Roznowski et al. (1991) have found support for behavioral families of withdrawal/adaptive behaviors, and the differing effect of job satisfaction facets on these families. Thus, it is important, in arguing that there are benefits to a single adaptation construct, to compare the results obtained from a behavioral family

approach to a single factor approach. It behavioral families fit significantly better than a single family, and if these families significantly differ in their antecedents, the validity of the single factor approach used in the present study would be called into question.

As indicated earlier, Hulin (1991) had hypothesized four families of adaptive behaviors. In the present study, there were sufficient specific behaviors to form three of those families. Based on Hulin (1991) and Judge (1990), missing meetings, shirking, chatting with co-workers, and citizenship (reverse scored) were chosen as indicators of the behavioral family reducing job inputs. Retirement, quitting (both self-report and archival), tardiness, and absence (both self-report and archival) were chosen as indicators of attempts to reduce work role inclusion. Finally, transfer was the only behavior measured that represented attempts to change the work situation. Because supervisory evaluation of employee adaptive behaviors measured some specific attempts to reduce job inputs (shirking, chatting with co-workers, and citizenship) and reduce work role inclusion (tardiness and absence), it was included as a measure of both these behavioral families. Consistent with the earlier estimation of the single adaptation construct, separate estimations were conducted for the archival measures of turnover and absence.

With both estimations, allowing the specific behavioral measures to load on the three factors yielded a significantly better fit that a single factor solution (e.g., change in $\underline{X}^2$ = 11.62; change in $\underline{df}$ = 2; $\underline{p}$ < .01). This suggests that a behavioral family approach does offer a better fit to the data even though the results presented in Table 1 demonstrated that a single factor solution fit well. A second-order factor was extracted from the three factors that overall yielded a good fit to the data ($\underline{X}^2/\underline{df}$ = 1.86; GFI = .91; AGFI = .89; RMSR = .09). All three behavioral families loaded significantly ($\underline{p}$ < .01) on the second-order factor (average loading = .71), and cumulatively explained 91% of the variance in the second order factor. Thus, it is important to determine if differing results are obtained concerning job satisfaction - job adaptation relationships using behavioral families as opposed to a single adaptive construct. If the families do not differ in their antecedents, there is little

utility in separating them since, consistent with James and James (1989), they effectively can by summarized by a single hierarchical construct.

In order to test this, facets of job satisfaction were used to predict the adaptive families, since Hulin (1991) and Hanisch and Hulin (1991) argued that facets of job satisfaction are likely to differ in influencing the behavioral families. If the effects of these facets on the families are not significantly different (tested in LISREL by examining the increase in $\underline{X}^2$ constraining the coefficients to be equal), this would suggest that treating job adaptation as a general construct is warranted, even though these latter results require that we have an appropriate range of antecedent variables and an appropriate causal model. Using the five facets of the JDI to predict the three adaptive families, of the 15 possible comparisons, none were significantly different at the .01 level. Thus, within the limited sets of antecedents used, no support was found for differential effects of job satisfaction facets on adaptation families. This suggests that treating adaptation as a general construct is appropriate with this sample and with this set of affective antecedents.

Discussion

The results supported the validity of the hypothesized construct of job adaptation. The wide range of work behaviors sampled, by three different methods (self report, supervisor evaluation, and archival), fit a single latent construct interpreted to represent job adaptation. Hulin (1991), in discussing the evidence required to validate the existence of an adaptation construct, argued that "some degree of empirical covariation among indicators of the construct is required (p. 55)." Confirmatory factor analysis allows systematic testing of the degree to which covariation among indictors is strong enough to identify an underlying construct. In this case, the existence of an adaptation construct was confirmed by the patterns of covariance among the behavioral indicators. Because of the triangulation of data sources, confidence can be placed in the meaningfulness of a job adaptation construct.

The finding of an underlying construct of job adaptation indicates that individuals generally do not enact single behaviors in isolation. Those who are absent are also often likely to be late, spend time chatting with co-workers, miss meetings, and so on. Scientific or practical focus on a single behavior in isolation, as has been the past practice of withdrawal research, may be misplaced. An array of specific behaviors manifest the general construct. Study of the general construct permits generalization to functionally similar, albeit unstudied, behaviors (Cook, Campbell, & Peracchio, 1991; Cronbach, 1982).

Perceived ease of movement and available alternatives were not significant predictors of adaptation. Steel and Griffeth (1989) noted that investigations of these factors as predictors of turnover have yielded weak results. They discussed several methodological problems potentially explaining the failure of studies to find perceptions of the labor market strongly predictive of turnover. The authors pointed out that use of occupationally homogeneous samples, attenuating effects of the low base rate for turnover, and poor measurement of perceived employment opportunity contribute to the weak effects of perceived labor market variables on turnover. However, in the present study there was variability in how respondents viewed their employment alternatives (perceived alternatives and ease of movement had similar coefficients of variation to the other variables in the model). Further, given the relative heterogeneity of occupations in the sample (medical office assistants face different labor markets from registered nurses, as registered nurses do from nurse clinicians and technicians, as evidenced by the fact that the occupations differed significantly in their perceptions of available alternatives and ease of movement), and the avoidance of base rate problems by employing an aggregated construct, it is not clear that the failure of perceptions of the labor market to predict adaptation are due to the factors suggested by Steel and Griffeth (1989). For example, Gerhart (1990) has shown that labor market perceptions are not always closely aligned to actual labor market conditions. Finally, both age and number of children significantly influenced job adaptation, indicating that younger individuals and those with dependent

responsibilities were more likely to engage in adaptive behaviors, consistent with the hypotheses.

Hulin (1991), Hulin et al. (1985), and Rosse and Miller (1984) have assumed that a withdrawal or adaptive mechanism, manifested by an array of behaviors, is invoked in response to job dissatisfaction. However, there have been no causal tests of the general adaptation construct. Some empirical investigations on the relationship between absenteeism and turnover have appeared (Beehr & Gupta, 1978; Porter & Steers, 1973). Also, several authors have developed theories about the possible relations between these forms of adaptation. However, these models have not been systematically tested (Hanisch, 1990; Rosse, 1989). Using self reports of adaptive behaviors, Roznowski et al. (1991) also found supportive evidence for an adaptive construct. While Roznowski et al.'s results provided an extensive investigation of adaptive behaviors, the authors noted that the validity of their conclusions needed to be supported by evidence beyond self reports of behaviors. Thus, the results of this study are significant because they support the assumptions and hypotheses made by the above authors in a manner no empirical data have heretofore been able to.

The causal link from job satisfaction to the propensity to withdraw and engage in other adaptive behaviors on the job received support from the results. Those disliking their jobs were more likely to engage in adaptation behaviors. It is not important which specific adaptation behaviors those are; they can be a few chosen from among those available to them. Those available to any one individual also may represent a much smaller sample than the total theoretical set. That many behaviors can be invoked is the significant finding. Those unhappy with their job will make attempts to adapt to it -- these attempts are manifested in various work role behaviors. If disliking one's job were only a minor irritation, job dissatisfaction would not be expected to predict these work behaviors. That those who dislike their job engage in these behaviors gives further evidence about the importance of job satisfaction to individuals. The total effects of job satisfaction and

subjective well-being on overall job adaptation offers further compelling evidence for the validity of the general attitude to general behavior construct hypothesis. This finding also supports Hulin's (1991) explanations regarding the modest effects of job satisfaction on isolated withdrawal behaviors generally found in past research. Job satisfaction does exert a relatively strong influence on job adaptation, but only when the distributional properties of the isolated behaviors and generality of the constructs are taken into consideration.

Job satisfaction significantly influencing job adaptation presents important implications for organizations. Many of these behaviors are costly in isolation. Martocchio (in press), in a sample of 440 employees over a three month period, estimated the cost of absence to be over $25,000 to the organization. Boudreau and Berger (1985), working under various selection and retention assumptions, estimated that changing a large organization's retention policy can result in over $200 million in savings over 10 years. Shirking, lateness, stealing/use of company supplies also impose costs on employers, although the magnitudes of these costs are difficult to measure. If the results of this study are correct, these costs can be expected to be a negative function of job satisfaction and cumulatively high in magnitude to most organizations. This is supported by Mirvis and Lawler's (1977) finding that job dissatisfaction imposed costs on an employer through its effect of several behaviors. Blocking some of these behaviors might seem to be a way to reduce these costs. However, the covariation among these behaviors suggests that blocking one may increase the occurrence of the others. This is reinforced by the patterns of adaptive behaviors demonstrated by satisfied and dissatisfied employees; workers disliking their jobs generally are more likely to engage in the behaviors or behavioral reports assessed in this study. Future research within a utility framework would be useful in providing a cumulative estimate of the costs of these behaviors to employers.

The causal link from subjective well-being to job adaptation was significant. Those unhappy and dissatisfied with their lives were significantly more likely to engage in adaptive behaviors than those with high subjective well-being, even controlling for job

satisfaction. Thus, subjective well-being had a significant direct impact on job adaptation over and above its indirect effect accounted for through job satisfaction. That indirect effect was substantial and significant. The significant total effect of subjective well-being on job adaptation makes it a very important variable to consider in understanding why individuals differ in adaptation behavior. Since little work has been done linking dispositional states to behavior (Judge, 1990), this is a significant finding.

A strength of the present study is the use of multiple sources to measure the constructs of interest. Because subjective well-being and job satisfaction were measured by two sources of data (self reports and significant others) and adaptive behaviors were measured by three sources (self reports, supervisor evaluations, and archival data), it is unlikely that the findings were observed due to self report variance. Because each source was necessary to form an overall measure of the adaptation construct, and because each contributed variance to that construct, confidence can be placed in the findings.

This study cannot answer the question of whether these behaviors are truly adaptive and increase the job satisfaction and well-being of employees. The first step in the process of determining this, however, must begin with learning if there is meaningful evidence for an adaptation construct and if assessments of that construct are predicted by job affect and overall well-being. If neither of these hypotheses were supported by the present study, there would be little use in investigating the adaptive nature of these behaviors cumulatively. It seems plausible, pending further evidence, to assume that the "glue" holding these behaviors together is their potential in reducing dissatisfaction. The fact that these behaviors significantly covary and are influenced by job satisfaction and subjective well-being supports this assumption. Future research needs to address precisely why the generally unhappy, and job dissatisfied, engage in these behaviors. A plausible explanation lies in Rosse and Miller's (1984) model of job adaptation, where the unhappy and job dissatisfied may choose the job as the focus of their adaptive efforts because, perhaps, jobs are important in their overall subjective well-being and because engaging in the behaviors

may have been adaptive in the past. Because full validation of the adaptive nature of the construct investigated in the present study implies attitude change, longitudinal research linking changes in attitudes to invocation of these behaviors is critical.

Gerhart (1991) has argued that there is no evidence to suggest that dispositional effects have much practical relevance for organizations. Indeed, past dispositional research has not offered many suggestions based on empirical data about what organizations would do differently as a result of dispositional influences. The results of this study, given the expensive nature of these adaptation behaviors cumulatively and alone, suggest that efforts to control the costs of various employee behaviors might best be dealt with by focusing on the causes of those behaviors, in this case job satisfaction and subjective well-being.

Finally, our results should not have a "chilling effect" on future research investigations utilizing families of adaptive behaviors. As we indicated earlier, such investigations can yield much useful information. Although our results did substantiate the use of a single general construct, some support was found for a behavioral family approach. Accordingly, research on behavioral families is important and should continue.

Conclusion

Although absenteeism, turnover, and lateness have often been considered as general adaptation behaviors, no attempts have been made to treat these behaviors as manifestations of a adaptation construct in a causal framework. Hulin (1991) has argued that treatment of these specific behaviors as manifestations of a general construct also should enhance the empirical relations between general attitudes and adaptation. The causal model tested in the present study found evidence for an underlying adaptation construct, and that the construct was significantly influenced by job satisfaction and subjective well-being. The multiple-source results suggest a new approach to the study of adaptive behaviors in organizations.

References

Adler, S., & Golan, J. (1981). Lateness as a withdrawal behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 66, 544-554.

Anderson, J.C., & Gerbing, D.W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. Psychological Bulletin, 103, 411-423.

Beehr, T.A., & Gupta, N. (1978). A note on the structure of employee withdrawal. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 21, 73-79.

Bentler, P.M. (1985). Theory and implementation of EQS: A structural equations program. Los Angeles: BMDP Statistical Software.

Bernardin, H.J. (1977). The relationship of personality variables to organizational withdrawal. Personnel Psychology, 30, 17-27.

Boudreau, J.W., & Berger, C.J. (1985). Decision-theoretic utility analysis applied to employee separations and acquisitions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 581-612.

Brief, A.P., & Motowidlo, S.J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behavior. Academy of Management Review, 11, 710-725.

Brief, A.P., Burke, M.J., George, J.M., Robinson, B., & Webster, J. (1988). Should negative affectivity remain an unmeasured variable in the study of job stress? Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 193-198.

Brooke, P.P. (1986). Beyond the Steers and Rhodes model of employee attendance. Academy of Management Review, 11, 345-361.

Brooke, P.P., Russell, D.W., & Price, J.L. (1988). Discriminant validation of measures of job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 139-145.

Burt, R.S. (1976). Interpretational confounding of unobserved variables in structural equation models. Sociological Methods and Research, 5, 3-51.

Carmines, E., & McIver, J. (1981). Analyzing models with unobserved variables: Analysis of covariance structures. In G. Bohrnstedt & E. Borgotta (Eds.), Social measurement: Current issues, (pp. 65-115). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Carsten, J.M., & Spector, P.E. (1987). Unemployment, job satisfaction, and employee turnover: A meta-analytic test of the Muchinsky model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72, 374-381.

Cook, T.D., Campbell, D.T., & Peracchio, L. (1991). Quasi Experimentation. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (2nd ed., Vol. 1, pp. 491-576). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.

Cronbach, L.J. (1982). Designing evaluations of education and social programs. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. Psychological Bulletin, 95, 542-575.

Diener, E. (1990). Challenges in measuring subjective well-being and ill-being. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Diener, E., Emmons, R.A., Larsen, R.J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. Journal of Personality Assessment, 49, 71-75.

Doob, L.W. (1947). The behavior of attitudes. Psychological Review, 54, 135-156.

Dulany, D.E. (1962). The place of hypotheses and intentions: An analysis of verbal control in verbal conditioning. In C.W. Eriksen (Ed.), Behavior and awareness. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

Farrell, D., & Stamm, C.L. (1988). Meta-analysis of the correlates of employee absence. Human Relations, 41, 211-227.

Ferris, G.R., Youngblood, S.A., & Yates, V.L. (1985). Personality, training performance, and withdrawal: A test of the person-group fit hypothesis for organizational newcomers. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 27, 377-388.

Fishbein, M. (1979). A theory of reasoned action: Some applications and implications. In
    H. Howe & M. Page (Eds.), Nebraska symposium on motivation, (pp. 65-118).
    Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, attitude, intentions, and behavior: An
    introduction to theory and research. Boston: Addison-Wesley.

Fordyce, M.W. (1977). Development of a program to increase personal happiness.
    Journal of Counseling Psychology, 24, 511-521.

Garrison, K.R., & Muchinsky, P.M. (1977). Attitudinal and biographical predictors of
    incidental absence. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 10, 221-230.

George, J.M. (1989). Mood and absence. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 317-324.

Gerbing, D.W., & Anderson, J.C. (1987). Improper solutions in the analysis of covariance
    structures: Their interpretability and a comparison of alternate respecifications.
    Psychometrika, 52, 99-111.

Gerhart, B. (1990). Voluntary turnover and alternative job opportunities. Journal of
    Applied Psychology, 75, 467-476.

Gerhart, B. (1991). The doubtful practical relevance of dispositional effects on job
    satisfaction. Working paper, Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies,
    Cornell University.

Getman, J.G., Goldberg, S.B., & Herman, J.B. (1976). Union representation elections:
    Law and reality. New York: Sage.

Hackett, R.D., & Guion, R.M. (1985). A reevaluation of the absenteeism-job satisfaction
    relationship. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 35, 340-381.

Hall, R.E. (1982). The importance of lifetime jobs in the U.S. economy. American
    Economic Review, 72, 716-724.

Hamner, W.C., & Smith, F.J. (1978). Work attitudes as predictors of unionization activity.
    Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 415-421.

Hanisch, K.A. (1990). A causal model of general attitudes, work withdrawal, and job withdrawal, including retirement. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Hanisch, K.A., & Hulin, C.L. (1990). Retirement as a voluntary organizational withdrawal behavior. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 37, 60-78.

Harrison, D.A., & Hulin, C.L. (1989). Investigations of absenteeism: Using event history models to study the absence-taking process. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 300-306.

Hayduk, L.A. (1987). Structural equation modeling with LISREL: Essentials and advances. Baltimore: John Hopkins.

Hertig, J.R. (1985). Multiple indicator models using LISREL. In H.M. Blalock (Ed.), Causal approach to measurement and aggregation.

Holahan, C.J., & Moos, R.H. (1987). Personal and contextual determinants of coping strategies. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52, 946-955.

Hom, P.W., & Hulin, C.L. (1981). A competitive test of the prediction of re-enlistment by several models. Journal of Applied Psychology, 66, 23-39.

Hulin, C.L. (1991). Adaptation, persistence, and commitment in organizations. In M.D. Dunnette & L.M. Hough (Eds.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 445-505). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.

Hulin, C.L., Roznowski, M., & Hachiya, D. (1985). Alternative opportunities and withdrawal decisions: Empirical and theoretical discrepancies and an integration. Psychological Bulletin, 97, 233-250.

Humphreys, L.G. (1960). Investigations of the simplex. Psychometrika, 25, 313-323.

Ilgen, D.R., & Hollenback, J.H. (1977). The role of job satisfaction in absence behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 19, 148-161.

James, L.A., & James, L.R. (1989). Integrating work environment perceptions: Exploring into the measurement of meaning. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 739-751.

Jones, G. (1984). Task visibility, free riding, and shirking: Explaining the effect of structure and technology on employee behavior. Academy of Management Review, 9, 684-695.

Joreskog, K.G., & Sorbom, D. (1989). LISREL 7: A guide to the program and applications. Chicago: SPSS Inc.

Judge, T.A. (1990). Job satisfaction as a reflection of disposition: Investigating the relationship and its effect on employee adaptive behaviors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Judge, T.A., & Hulin, C.L. (in press). Job satisfaction as a reflection of disposition: A multiple source causal analysis. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes.

Kunin, T. (1955). The construction of a new type of attitude measure. Personnel Psychology, 8, 65-77.

Levin, I., & Stokes, J.P. (1989). Disposition approach to job satisfaction: Role of negative affectivity. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 752-758.

Locke, E.A., Shaw, K.N., Saari, L.M., & Latham, G.P. (1981). Goal setting and task performance: 1969-1980. Psychological Bulletin, 90, 125-152.

Mangione, T.W., & Quinn, R.P. (1975). Job satisfaction, counterproductive behavior, and drug use at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 114-116.

March, J.G., & Simon, H.A. (1958). Organizations. New York: Wiley.

Marsh, H.W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). The application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept: First and higher order factor structures and their invariance across age groups. Psychological Bulletin, 97, 562-582.

Martocchio, J.J. (1989). Voluntary absenteeism as reasoned action: A partial test of the Ajzen and Fishbein theory of behavioral intentions. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.

Martocchio, J.J. (in press). The financial cost of absence decisions. Journal of Management.

Martocchio, J.J., & Judge, T.A. (1991). A policy capturing approach to individuals' decisions to be absent. Working paper, Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies, Cornell University.

Mirvis, P.H., Lawler, E.E. III (1977). Measuring the financial impact of employee attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, 1-8.

Mobley, W.H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, 237-240.

Mobley, W.M., Horner, S.O., & Hollingsworth, A.T. (1978). An evaluation of precursors of hospital employee turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 408-414.

Muchinsky, P.M., & Tuttle, M.L. (1979). Employee turnover: An empirical and methodological assessment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14, 43-77.

Mumford, M.D., Weeks, J.L., Harding, F.D., & Fleishman, E.A. (1988). Relationships between student characteristics, course content, and training outcomes: An integrative modeling effort. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 443-456.

Naylor, J.C., Pritchard, R.D., & Ilgen, D.R. (1980). A theory of behavior in organizations. New York: Academic Press.

Olsson, U., Drasgow, F., & Dorans, N.J. (1982). The polyserial correlation coefficient. Psychometrika, 41, 337-347.

Organ, D.W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Pavot, W., Diener, E., Colvin, C.R., & Sandvik, E. (1989). Validity of the satisfaction with life scale. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Perone, M., DeWaard, R.J., & Baron, A. (1979). Satisfaction with real and simulated jobs in relation to personality variables and drug use. Journal of Applied Psychology, 64, 660-668.

Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1973). Organizational, work, and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. Psychological Bulletin, 80, 151-176.

Rhodes, S.R., & Steers, R.M. (1990). Managing employee absenteeism. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Rock, D.A., Bennett, R.E., & Jirele, T. (1988). Factor structure of the graduate record examinations general test in handicapped and nonhandicapped groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 383-392.

Rosse, J.G. (1983). Employee withdrawal and adaptation: An expanded framework. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Rosse, J.G. (1989). Relations among lateness, absence, and turnover: Is there a progression of withdrawal? Human Relations, 41, 517-531.

Rosse, J.G., & Hulin, C.L. (1985). Adaptation to work: An analysis of employee health, withdrawal, and change. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 36, 324-347.

Rosse, J.G., & Miller, H.E. (1984). Relationship between absenteeism and other employee behaviors. In P.S. Goodman & R.S. Atkin (Eds.), Absenteeism: New approaches to understanding, measuring, and managing employee absence, (pp. 194-228). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Roznowski, M. (1989). An examination of the measurement properties of the Job Descriptive Index with experimental items. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 805-814.

Roznowski, M., & Hanisch, K.A. (1990). Building systematic heterogeneity into work attitudes and behavior measures. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 36, 361-375.

Roznowski, M., Rosse, J.G., & Miller, H.E. (1991). The scientific value of breath in employee responses: Employee withdrawal, citizenship, job attitudes and perceptions. Working paper, Ohio State University.

Ryan, T.A. (1970). Intentional behavior: An approach to human motivation. New York: Ronald Press.

Schmitt, N., & Bedeian, A.G. (1982). A comparison of LISREL and two-stage least squares analysis of a hypothesized life-job satisfaction relationship. Journal of Applied Psychology, 67, 806-817.

Schriesheim, C.A. (1978). Job satisfaction, attitudes toward unions, and voting in a union representation election. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 548-552.

Schwab, D.P. (1980). Construct validity in organizational behavior. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior, (Vol. 2, pp. 3-43). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Scott, K.D., & Taylor, G.S. (1985). An examination of conflicting findings on the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism: A meta-analysis. Academy of Management Journal, 28, 599-612.

Shapiro, C., & Stiglitz, J.E. (1984). Equilibrium unemployment as a worker discipline device. American Economic Review, 74, 433-444.

Smith, P.C., Kendall, L., & Hulin, C.L. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Staw, B.M., Bell, N.E., & Clausen, J.A. (1986). The dispositional approach to job attitudes: A lifetime longitudinal test. Administrative Science Quarterly, 31, 56-77.

Steel, R.P., & Griffeth, R.W. (1989). The elusive relationship between perceived employment opportunity and turnover behavior: A methodological or conceptual artifact? Journal of Applied Psychology, 24, 846-854.

Steers, R.M., & Mowday, R.T. (1981). Employee turnover and post-decision accommodation process. In L.L. Cummings and B.M. Staw (Eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior, (Vol. 3, pp. 235-281). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Steers, R.M., & Rhodes, S.R. (1978). Major influences on employee attendance: A process model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 391-407.

Thurstone, L.L. (1931). The measurement of social attitudes. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 26, 249-269.

Underwood, B., & Froming, W.J. (1980). The mood survey: A personality measure of happy and sad moods. Journal of Personality Assessment, 44, 404-414.

Vance, R.J., MacCallum, R.C., Coovert, M.D., & Hedge, J.W. (1988). Construct validity of multiple job performance measures using confirmatory factor analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 74-80.

Waters, L.K., & Roach, D. (1973). Job attitudes as predictors of termination and absenteeism: Consistency over time and across organizational units. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 341-342.

Watson, D., & Clark, L.A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive psychological states. Psychological Bulletin, 96, 465-490.

Weldon, E., & Mustari, E.L. (1988). Felt dispensability in groups of coactors: The effects of shared responsibility and explicit anonymity on cognitive effort. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 41, 330-351.

Youngblood, S.A. (1984). Work, nonwork, and withdrawal. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 106-117.

Zalesny, M.D. (1985). Comparison of economic and noneconomic factors in predicting faculty vote preference in a union representation election. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, 243-256.

Author Notes

Table 1

Correlations Between Variables Used in Causal Model

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Subjective Well-being	--																	
2. Job Satisfaction	42	--																
3. Shirking	-22	-18	--															
4. Transfer	-45	-43	10	--														
5. Retire	-28	-12	04	09	--													
6. Quit	-29	-24	19	24	24	--												
7. Late	-10	-18	25	19	-07	09	--											
8. Miss Meetings	-12	-17	34	01	-04	19	23	--										
9. Chat with Co-workers	-16	-15	39	10	07	19	18	14	--									
10. Absent	-33	-31	42	31	05	37	42	36	19	--								
11. Citizenship	-28	-29	18	-01	02	-03	01	03	18	-02	--							
12. Supervisor Evaluation of Adaptive Behaviors	-12	-21	12	02	-04	00	19	11	11	23	09	--						
13. Absent-Archival	-15	-07	18	-02	11	17	02	-03	19	08	-10	-09	--					
14. Turnover-Archival	-04	-28	09	25	10	25	04	-01	13	14	05	08	02	--				
15. Age	-16	10	-17	03	27	-09	-21	-01	-21	-20	01	-15	04	-11	--			
16. Ease of Movement	-15	-02	12	-17	-04	-13	03	-08	-01	05	-03	-07	02	-11	-05	--		
17. Available Employment Opportunities	15	10	-04	07	13	03	08	-06	00	-12	14	-02	-08	03	03	-20	--	
18. Children	-13	-02	08	11	06	-04	25	-04	09	11	00	11	11	00	-13	06	01	--

Note: Decimals are omitted. Subjective well-being and job satisfaction constructs were formed using factor weights obtained from measurement model estimation.

Table 2

Measurement Estimates of Job Adaptation

Measure	Factor Loading	Standard Error
Shirk	$.56^{**}$	.08
Transfer	$.35^{**}$	.09
Retire	.08	.09
Quit	$.44^{**}$	.09
Late	$.49^{**}$	.08
Miss Meetings	$.45^{**}$	.08
Chat with Co-workers	$.36^{**}$	.09
Absent	$.79^{**}$	.08
Citizenship (reverse scored)	.07	.09
Supervisor Evaluation of Employee Adaptive Behaviors	$.26^{**}$	.09
Number of Days Absent (Archival)	$.14^{*}$	.09
Turnover (Archival)	$.22^{**}$	.09

Fit Statistics:

Chi-square ($\underline{x}^2$)	77.88	(57.39)
Degrees of Freedom ($\underline{df}$)	44	(44)
$\underline{x}^2/\underline{df}$	1.77	(1.30)
Goodness-of-Fit Index	.92	(.92)
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	.87	(.87)
Root-Mean-Square Residual	.07	(.07)
Coefficient of Determination	.63	(.62)

** $\underline{p}$ < .01; * $\underline{p}$ < .10

Note: Fit statistics for the model estimated with the archival measure of number of days absent are in parentheses

Table 3

Fit Statistics of Structural Model

Statistic	Value[1]	Value[2]
Chi-square ($\underline{x}^2$)	1166	861
Degrees of Freedom (df)	841	841
$\underline{x}^2$/df	1.39	1.02
Goodness-of-fit Index	.76	.76
Adjusted Goodness-of-fit Index	.75	.74
Root-mean-square Residual	.09	.09
Coefficient of Determination	.34	.31
Sample Size	155	118

[1] Estimated from model using archival measure of turnover

[2] Estimated from model using archival measure of days absent

Table 4

Total Effects of Subjective Well-being and Job Satisfaction on Adaptive

Behaviors

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	
	Subjective well-being	Job Satisfaction
Shirk	-.22 (.04)	-.24 (.07)
Transfer	-.16 (.03)	-.18 (.05)
Retire	-.04 (.01)	-.05 (.01)
Quit	-.18 (.04)	-.20 (.06)
Late	-.19 (.04)	-.21 (.06)
Miss Meetings	-.17 (.04)	-.19 (.05)
Chat with Co-workers	-.14 (.04)	-.16 (.04)
Absent	-.31 (.06)	-.35 (.10)
Citizenship (reverse scored)	-.04 (.01)	-.04 (.01)
Supervisor Evaluation of Employee Adaptive Behaviors	-.10 (.02)	-.12 (.03)
Number of Days Absent (Archival)	-.11 (.02)	-.11 (.03)
Turnover (Archival)	-.10 (.02)	-.11 (.03)
Overall Job Adaptation Construct	-.50 (.09)	-.53 (.14)

All effects are significant at the .01 level
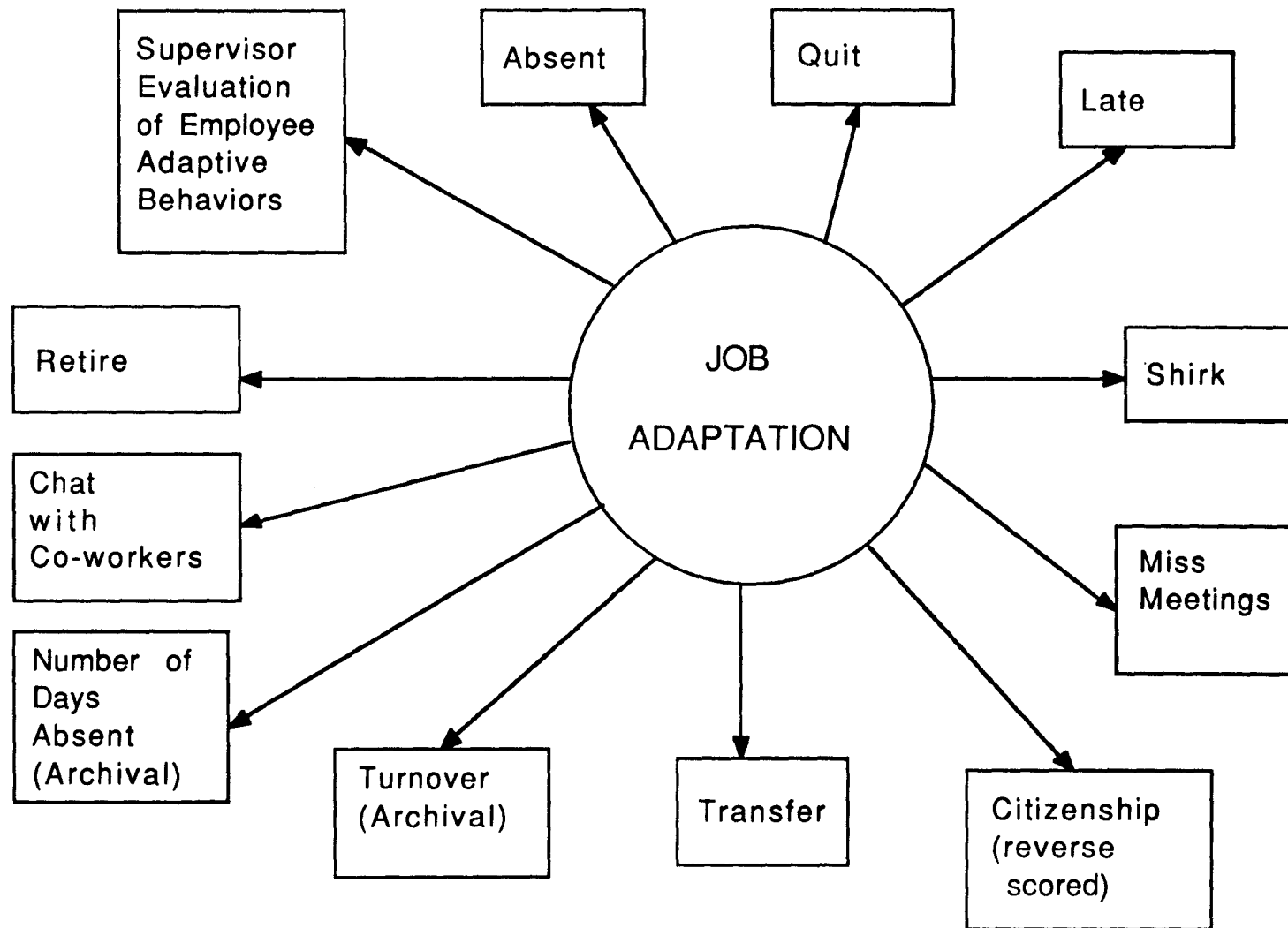
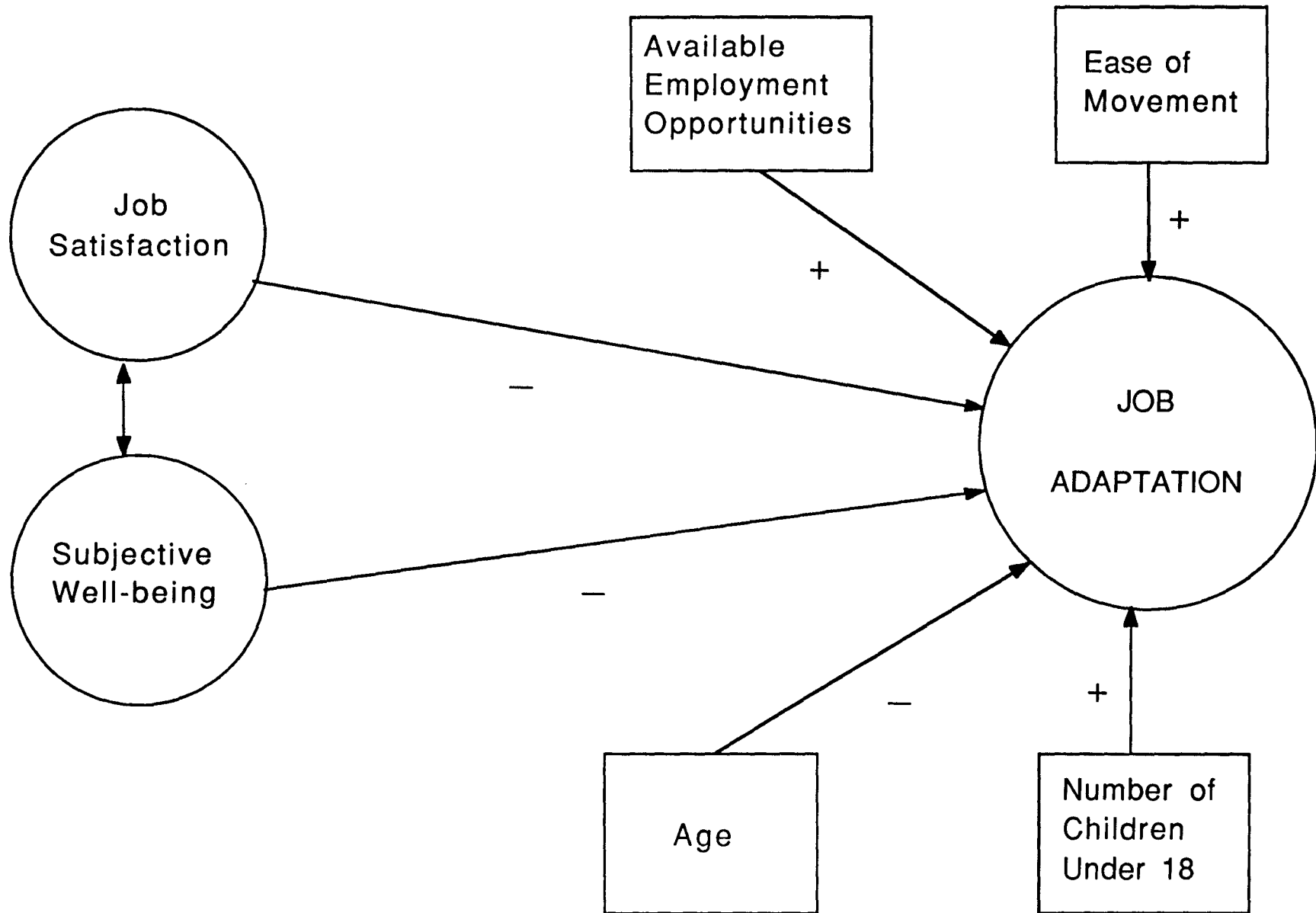Stability Index = .366

Standard Errors are in parentheses

Figure Captions

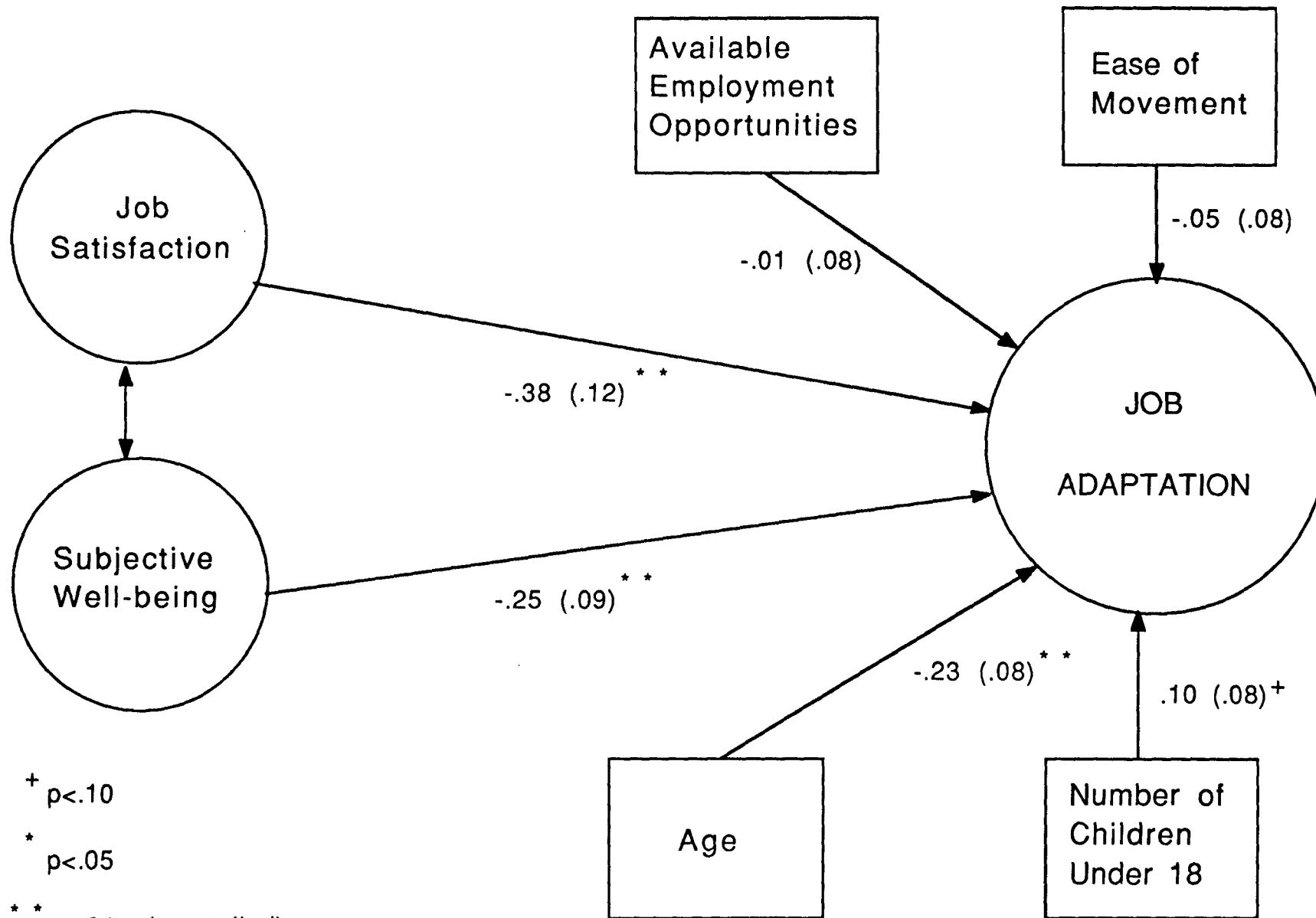Figure 1. Hypothesized Measurement of Job Adaptation Construct

Figure 2. Hypothesized Structural Model

Figure 3. Structural Model Estimates

Available Employment Opportunities

Ease of Movement

Job Satisfaction

JOB ADAPTATION

-.01 (.08)

-.05 (.08)

-.38 (.12)**

Subjective Well-being

-.25 (.09)**

-.23 (.08)**

.10 (.08)+

Age

Number of Children Under 18

+ p<.10

* p<.05

** p<.01   (one-tailed)

Standard Errors are in parentheses