

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

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This paper has not undergone formal review or approval of the faculty of the ILR School. It is intended to make results of Center research, conferences, and projects available to others interested in human resource management in preliminary form to encourage discussion and suggestions.

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 (χ^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, Coover, & 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

