Turnover in dirty work occupations: A focus on pre-entry individual characteristics

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The current study explored newcomer turnover in a unique population: dirty workers. Based on social identity theory (SIT) and conservation of resources theory (COR), a set of individual level predictors theoretically relevant to dirty work turnover were identified. We examined whether differences in access to job information prior to hire, career commitment, belief in the value of the job, negative affectivity (NA), and maladaptive coping style were related to turnover of animal shelter employees with euthanasia responsibilities. Results supported the potential importance of all variables for understanding turnover amongst these dirty workers. Access to job information, NA, and maladaptive coping style were found to have the highest relative importance amongst the set of predictors.

Although some turnover may be healthy for an organization (e.g., infusion of new talent and ideas), mitigating unwanted turnover is critical to organizational health and effectiveness (e.g., Koys, 2001). Consequently, extensive research on turnover antecedents exists (for a review, see Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). More specifically, a number of researchers have examined the influence of individual differences on turnover (e.g., Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005); however, this extant work focuses most extensively on more traditional job contexts.

The current study explored individual-level predictors of newcomer turnover in a unique job context: dirty work. Such work is defined as occupations that society views as physically, socially, and/or morally dirty or tainted (Hughes, 1962). Dirty work occupations are plentiful and varied including sanitation workers, telemarketers, morticians, and slaughterhouse workers. Dirty work occupations fulfil societal needs, yet are undesirable and stigmatized by society.

Given our assessment of the turnover literature, this appears to be first examination of predictors of newcomer turnover within a dirty work population. Thus, to identify theoretically relevant potential predictors of newcomer turnover, we utilized two theoretical streams, social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and conservation of resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989). In the following sections, we briefly describe each theory and their connection to dirty work.

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According to SIT, individuals develop social identities (identity tied to social group membership) to answer the questions ‘Who am I?’ and ‘Who are we?’ (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). The stigmatized nature of dirty work complicates the social identity formation process. Namely, individuals employed in dirty work occupations face negative social stereotypes of the work that they do and, by extension, who they are. Building on Iyer, Jetten, Tsivrikos, Postmes, & Haslam (2009) work on self-group identity compatibility, newcomers to dirty work may have a more difficult time adopting their new social identity because its stigmatized nature is incompatible with their existing non-tainted social identities. It theoretically follows that those newcomers ‘unprepared’ for the stigma should be more likely to turnover. Therefore, access to job information prior to hire should facilitate an individual’s ability to determine whether or not they ‘fit’ in the new organization. That is, the more access to job information, the greater likelihood that newcomers will have more realistic knowledge about the job. As such, access to job information may facilitate realistic job previews, which have been shown to have a number of positive organizational outcomes including reduced turnover (e.g., Phillips, 1998). In the current study, we examined access to job information as the opportunities newcomers had to learn about the job. This is a broader measure than that of a realistic job preview, which is interested in the content of the information. Although access to job information is important for jobs in general, it may be of even greater importance in dirty work because of the unpleasant nature of the job tasks and the negative reactions from organizational outsiders.

Hypothesis 1: Newcomers to dirty work who have had greater access to job information prior to hire will be less likely to turnover.

Although the salience of the stigmatization may fluctuate over time, it is an ever-present characteristic of dirty work. Therefore, individuals in dirty work jobs enact occupational ideologies – ‘systems of beliefs that provide a means for interpreting and understanding what the occupation does and why it matters’, (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999, p. 421) – as a way of developing and continually reinforcing their positive social identities (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999; Ashforth, Kreiner, Clark, & Fugate, 2007). Through reframing (altering the meaning), recalibrating (magnifying the positive aspects), and refocusing (ignoring the stigmatized functions), individuals in dirty work jobs develop and maintain positive social identities. Occupational ideologies result in both work identification (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999) and normalization – methods used to counter the taint associated with the dirty work (Ashforth et al., 2007). As a result, workers are able to conceptualize their work as both meaningful and exceptional (e.g., not everyone can do it).

Most importantly for this study, pre-existing beliefs about the value of the job and their commitment to the career may facilitate the enactment of occupational ideologies on the job. As newcomers are exposed to occupational ideologies on the job, their pre-existing beliefs may help their acceptance and espousal of such ideologies. That is, workers who already believe in the value of their work and are committed to their career may more readily invoke occupational ideologies as they encounter the negative consequences of their dirty work. In turn, the acceptance and enactment of occupational ideologies reinforces organizational identification, which has been shown to be negatively related to turnover (e.g., Mael & Ashforth, 1995).
Hypothesis 2: Newcomers to dirty work who express a commitment to their career choice will be less likely to turnover.

Hypothesis 3: Newcomers to dirty work who believe in the value of the job will be less likely to turnover.

COR theory and dirty work
COR theory states that individuals are motivated to ‘retain, protect, and build resources’ (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 516). Stress results from the perceived or actual loss of these valued resources. In the context of dirty work, identity threat and the associated loss of self-esteem constitute a potential and actual resource loss to individuals in dirty work jobs. We explored negative affectivity (NA) and maladaptive coping as individual difference variables related to the appraisal and management of resource-loss threat. For individuals in dirty work jobs, the appraisal of identity threat is a crucial component in their experience of stress, and hence their likelihood to remain in the occupation. If the negative aspects of dirty work are less salient to an individual, then they may experience less resource-loss threat (not investing resources in managing the negative taint). According to adaptation-level theory (Helson, 1948, 1964), previous stimuli act as a frame of reference for future stimuli. When current stimuli are similar to previously experienced stimuli, the result is indifference. Thus, individuals employed in dirty work who are higher in NA may view the negative stereotypes and aspects of their work as consistent with their overall worldview, and react with indifference. That is, encountering the stigma of dirty work may not be perceived as a ‘shock to the system’ (Lee & Mitchell, 1994, p. 60); therefore, newcomers to dirty work that are higher in NA may be less likely to re-evaluate the job itself and whether or not they wish to remain in the job.

Consistent with this reasoning, previous research has suggested that individuals high in NA are less likely to act on job dissatisfaction because it was congruent with their feelings regarding their life overall (Fisher & Locke, 1992). In their meta-analysis, Kanfer, Wanberg and Kantrowitz (2001) found that individuals high in neuroticism – a personality variable related to NA – engaged in fewer active job search behaviours than those low in neuroticism. Thus, even if individuals higher in NA perceive the resource threat and have the intention to quit (e.g., Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993), they may be less likely to actually change their dirty work situation.

Hypothesis 4: Newcomers to dirty work who are higher in NA will be less likely to turnover.

To manage the perceived or actual resource loss, individuals in dirty work jobs are likely to engage in coping behaviours. As described above, the enactment of occupational ideologies not only leads to occupational identification, but also helps individuals in dirty work cope through the normalization of the day-to-day challenges of dirty work (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). According to COR theory, however, coping can also be stressful. That is, ‘if the resources expended in coping outstrip the resultant benefits, the outcome of coping is likely to be negative’, (Hobfoll, 1989, p. 518). Although adaptive coping may not necessarily result in benefits, maladaptive coping (e.g., substance use) – coping that neither addresses the problem at hand, nor relieves the experienced distress (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989) – definitely will not. Individuals with maladaptive
coping styles may find it too difficult (i.e., resource demanding) to remain in dirty work occupations.

**Hypothesis 5**: Newcomers to dirty work who rely on maladaptive coping strategies will be more likely to turnover.

Taken together, this study takes a first look at newcomer turnover in a dirty work context. Using SIT and COR, a set of pre-entry predictors with theoretical relevance were identified. Although some of our predictors have been examined in turnover studies within non-dirty work occupations (e.g., job information, career commitment), this study’s contribution lies in exploring such predictors in a unique context as well as examining less common predictors of turnover suggested by the unique nature of dirty work (e.g., belief in the value of the job, NA, and maladaptive coping).

**Methods**

**Sample and data collection procedure**

The animal care workers selected for the study all had direct or indirect contact with a key tainted task – animal euthanasia. Animal euthanasia is a task with both a physical taint (in contact with death) and a moral taint. Over 2 years, a paper survey was distributed to new hires on their first day of work in eight geographically diverse animal shelters in the United States. This resulted in 102 survey responses. The new hires were mostly female (70.3%) and had achieved either some college education or graduated from college (59.4%). Over two-thirds (76.2%) of the new hires were between the ages of 18 and 34. Of the remaining participants, 21.6% were between 35 and 54, and 2% were 55 and older.

Participants completed the survey on Day 1 of the job. By surveying new hires on their first day, we sought to assess their dispositions (NA and maladaptive coping style) and perceptions (job information, career commitment, and belief in the value of the job) prior to the situational influences of actual work experience. That is, we were interested in pre-entry characteristics that might impact eventual turnover. The survey was not anonymous, but was confidential (i.e., never seen by shelter Human Resources). The new employee mailed them directly to the university. Voluntary turnover data were collected from the HR departments. Our analyses focused on voluntary turnover within 2 months of hire.

Our choice of collecting data on Day 1 and examining turnover after 2 months was based on previous research examining organizational entry and socialization, and our conversations with the management of the organizations. Specifically, studies of organizational entry and socialization frequently collect data on Day 1, with the first follow-up at 3 months (e.g., Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). This 3-month time frame has been shown to be an important period of adjustment for new hires, in which they may encounter entry shock, and begin to evaluate their fit with their new environment (e.g., Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011). However, our conversations with the management of the organizations indicated that the 2-month time frame was a critical period for losing new hires in this type of organization. According to Mitchell and James (2001), the appropriateness of measurement time points in research

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1 Education data were based on \(N = 98\).
can be improved when researchers seek the input of organizational members who have field knowledge regarding the timing of events of interest. Previous empirical research has demonstrated the utility of using organizational input to identify critical points of employees’ tenure (e.g., Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009; Harrison, Sluss, & Ashforth, 2011).

**Measures**

To obtain organizational participation, we agreed to keep our research survey short (5-min completion time). This resulted in using abbreviated measures. The scale reliabilities are presented in Table 1. Within our sample, career commitment and NA yielded Cronbach’s alphas above .80. Our measure of maladaptive coping was moderately reliable ($\alpha = .63$), but generally consistent with extant literature on coping measures (Carver *et al.*, 1989).

**Access to job information prior to hire.** Participants were provided with seven prompts related to opportunities for learning about the job prior to their first day. The prompts and the percentage of respondents that selected them are as follows: I was provided with written information from the shelter that provided a description of the job (51%), I watched a video that provided a description of the job (10.8%), I had an opportunity to talk with current employees (64.7%), I knew someone who worked here (25.5%), I visited the shelter and observed the work being done (69.6%), I asked questions during an interview about the job (65.7%). Respondents could also select ‘other’ to indicate an additional job information source (26.5%). Participants were instructed to mark all items (range = 0–7) that applied to their experience. Scores for each participant reflected the total number of items marked.

**Career commitment.** Career commitment was measured with three items from Blau’s (1985) eight-item career commitment scale. We eliminated the three items from the original eight-item scale with the lowest factor loadings across administrations in the original validation study. Then, we examined the remaining five items and selected the following three based on their clarity of wording: ‘If I had all the money I needed, I would probably still continue in this profession’, ‘If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in this profession’, and ‘If I had all the money I needed, I would probably still continue in this profession’. Responses to each statement were measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). An average score for each participant was calculated such that higher scores indicated greater career commitment.

**Belief in the value of the job.** A single item relevant to the animal shelter population under investigation was created. Single-item measures, though not ideal, have been shown to be useful and appropriate in organizational research, especially if the content is valid (e.g., Wanous & Hudy, 2001). Specifically, we asked participants, ‘To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following: I believe my job can really help animals’, (five-point scale; 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores reflected a stronger belief in the value of the job.

**Negative affectivity (NA).** NA was measured with five items from the Positive and Negative Affect Scale-NA previously shown to have the highest factor loadings on NA (afraid, distressed, nervous, scared, and upset; PANAS-NA; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). For the current study, participants were asked to indicate the extent (1 = *not at all* to 5 = *extremely*) to which they experienced each of the emotion-words *in general*. For
the analyses, participants’ mean NA rating was calculated, with higher scores associated with greater NA.

Maladaptive coping style. Based on COR theory, coping can be deleterious to the extent that it expends resources without replacing, or building additional, resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Thus, we selected items from the Brief COPE that did not seem to have a resource-generating value (i.e., strategies that are not adaptive). Specifically, one item from each of the following scales of the Brief COPE (Carver, 1997) was included: behavioural disengagement, substance use, denial, self-blame, and acceptance. The first three scales have been shown to be negatively related to the adaptive coping strategies of active coping and planning (Carver et al., 1989). The self-blame scale was selected because it had been added to Carver’s (1997) Brief Cope scale based on McCrae and Costa’s (1986) research demonstrating its relationship with poor adjustment under stress. Finally, although acceptance is often considered an adaptive form of coping, we included an item from this scale because acceptance has recently been shown to result in reduced self-esteem and greater pessimism (Litman & Lunsford, 2009). We were interested in individuals’ dispositional coping style; therefore, we used a general frame of reference in the instructional prompt. Specifically, respondents were asked to rate the extent that they typically engaged in a number of activities; for example, ‘use of alcohol or drugs to help myself feel better’, (rating scale: 1 = not at all to 5 = to a great extent).

Voluntary turnover. Over the duration of the study, we regularly contacted the HR departments and updated the voluntary turnover information for the survey respondents.

Results

Although data came from individuals in dirty work from within eight animal shelters, nesting effects were not found (e.g., Intraclass correlations, ICCs, were not significant). This was expected given that the predictors were individual difference variables collected prior to involvement in the organization. All subsequent analyses were at the individual level of analyses. Controlling for shelter in the analyses did not change any of the conclusions.

The means and standard deviations of the five predictor variables are listed in Table 1. Within 2 months, 28% turnover occurred. We do not have norms on turnover in shelters more broadly, thus, to put these rates in a greater context, Barrick and Zimmerman (2005) examined voluntary turnover in a sample of applicants in two organizations. At their 6-month follow-up, 33% of their sample had voluntarily left their jobs. Thus, 28% turnover after 2 months is consistent with our anecdotal evidence that turnover is problematic within animal shelter organizations. Overall, the point-biserial correlations were in the expected direction, which provided initial support for Hypotheses 1 through 5. Specifically, individuals that had more access to information prior to hire, were more committed to their career, had a stronger belief in the value of the job, and were higher in NA were less likely to turnover within their first 2 months of employment (rs from −.17 to −.27, ps < .05; Table 1). In addition, newcomers with maladaptive coping styles were more likely to turnover (r = .19, p < .05; Table 1). Of note, none of our demographic variables were found to moderate these relationships and no curvilinear relationships were identified.
Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for turnover and predictor variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M (SD)</th>
<th>TO</th>
<th>Access to info</th>
<th>Career-comm</th>
<th>Belief-value</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Mal coping</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TO</td>
<td>.28b</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>(n/a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to info</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>−.27**</td>
<td>(1.40)</td>
<td>.11 (n/a)</td>
<td>(.81)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career-comm</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>−.17*</td>
<td>(.71)</td>
<td>.11 (.81)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief-value</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>−.22*</td>
<td>(.61)</td>
<td>−.04 .53**</td>
<td>(n/a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>−.20*</td>
<td>(.64)</td>
<td>.03 .04 .03</td>
<td>(.84)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mal coping</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>.19*</td>
<td>(.58)</td>
<td>.03 −.28**</td>
<td>−.30** .26**</td>
<td>(.63)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. TO = turnover (coded one if turnover occurred); Access to info = access to job information prior to hire; Career-comm = career commitment; Belief-value = belief in the value of the job; NA = negative affectivity; Mal coping = maladaptive coping. One-tailed significance tests. *p < .05; **p < .01. Values in parenthesis = scale reliability α.

aOne-tailed significance tests were conducted for the six predictors with turnover; the remaining correlations in the matrix reflect two-tailed significance values.
bThe mean of TO represents the proportion of participants who left the organization.

Table 2. Logistic regression of turnover on five predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>OR</th>
<th>Relative weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turnover</td>
<td>21.90***</td>
<td>−.49*</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to info</td>
<td></td>
<td>−.21</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career-comm</td>
<td></td>
<td>−.56</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief-value</td>
<td></td>
<td>−1.05*</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.07*</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mal coping</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. B = unstandardized beta coefficient; SE = Standard error; OR = odds ratio; Access to info = access to job information prior to hire; Career-comm = career commitment; Belief-value = belief in the value of the job; NA = negative affectivity; Mal coping = maladaptive coping. *p < .05; ***p < .01.

Our hypotheses were all bivariate in nature; however, we wanted to more rigorously examine the entire set of variables. Thus, we were interested in understanding predictor utility relative to one another. The unstandardized predictors were simultaneously entered into a logistic regression analysis with turnover as the outcome of interest. As a set, access to job information prior to hire, career commitment, belief in the value of the job, NA, and maladaptive coping accounted for a significant amount of overall variance in turnover, $\chi^2 = 21.90, p < .01$ (Table 2). Contrary to our hypotheses, the regression coefficients for career commitment and belief in the value of the job were no longer significant. Researchers have criticized the over-reliance on regression coefficients when interpreting sets of predictors have recommended relative weights analysis (RWA) as a follow-up procedure (e.g., Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011; Van Iddekinge & Ployhart, 2008). Therefore, we included all of our predictors in a RWA for logistic regression (Toninandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009). RWA takes into consideration both the
individual effect of a predictor as well as its effect in combination with other predictors in the model, and is advantageous when multicollinearity is present (Johnson & LeBreton, 2004). Although our intercorrelations were small to moderate, only examining the logistic regression results may be misleading as to the importance of each predictor in its relationship with the criterion, turnover (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). Based on this follow-up RWA, access to job information prior to hire and NA (relative weights ($RW$) = 0.43 and 0.21, respectively) were the most critical for explaining early turnover, followed by maladaptive coping ($RW$ = .18), belief in the value of the job ($RW$ = 0.12), and career commitment ($RW$ = .05; Table 2).

Discussion
The present study aimed to contribute to the literature on two fronts: adding to dirty work turnover research that can inform organizational practices and furthering dirty work research by engaging in quantitative theory-relevant outcome testing. Overall, the results indicate a positive step on both fronts. Each predictor was significantly correlated with turnover. Given our design and bivariate hypotheses, correlational analysis was the most direct, albeit simplistic, test of our hypotheses. In their recent methodological critique, Spector and Brannick (2011) recommend matching statistical analyses to the research hypotheses in order to clarify the interpretation of results. Thus, our results indicate that access to job information prior to hire, career commitment, belief in the value of the job, NA, and maladaptive coping style are each related to turnover in a dirty work context.

Our regression and relative weights analyses provide a different and important additional perspective on our hypotheses. As a set, the predictors were significantly related to turnover amongst individuals in dirty work; however, not all of the individual regression coefficients were significant. Specifically, career commitment and belief in the value of the job – two of the three variables suggested by SIT – were no longer significant. In contrast, both of the predictors suggested by COR – NA and maladaptive coping – were significant in both the correlational and regression analyses, and were amongst the top three in terms of relative weight. Although identity threat underlies both the COR and SIT links to dirty work, our regression and RWA suggest that, perhaps, it is the day-to-day stress experience that motivates a person to leave a dirty job rather than the valence they assign to their group identity.

Access to job information was significant in both the correlational and logistic regression analyses, and demonstrated the highest relative importance amongst the set of predictors. In the current study, we examined access to job information rather than the actual content of the information (e.g., whether detailed and candid information on the nature of the job was presented). Our study is the first to examine the role of job information in a dirty work context; however, it remains unclear why access to job information was so important for dirty workers. One likely explanation is that access to job information may have provided more realistic job previews that helped to create realistic expectations (Premack & Wanous, 1985), which have been shown to relate to decreased turnover in non-dirty work jobs (e.g., Reilly, Brown, Blood, & Malatesta, 1981). Additionally, access to job information may be particularly important for dirty workers in terms of both the stress experience and positive identity formation. That is, the more an individual knows prior to entering a dirty work occupation, the less likely they will experience the entry shock of a negative social backlash; therefore, the identity threat is less salient to them. Similarly, the more an individual knows prior to
entering a dirty occupation, the better they are able to evaluate their personal fit with the new workgroup and identify positively with this new group. Future research needs to address these different, but complementary, processes underlying the relationship between access to job information and turnover in dirty work occupations.

An interesting finding from the current study was that higher NA was related to a reduced likelihood of turnover. NA has rarely been explored as a predictor of actual turnover, although previous research has indicated that it is positively related to turnover intentions (Cropanzano et al., 1993). Based on COR theory, the negative aspects of dirty work may not be as salient to individuals higher in NA; therefore, they are less likely to perceive resource threat. Given the established relationship between NA and negative work outcomes (e.g., Brief & Weiss, 2002), the findings that people higher in NA are less likely to leave dirty work has intriguing practical implications for dirty work organizations (i.e., an abundance of people high in NA in a stigmatized work context).

**Theoretical and practical implications**

The current study provides further support for the applicability of SIT and COR in studies of dirty work. Existing studies of dirty work use an SIT framework in order to explain the individual consequences of engaging in stigmatized work (e.g., negative stereotypes and reactions), and the strategies used to overcome such consequences (i.e., occupational ideologies; Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). Our study extends the role of SIT in dirty work to examine an important organizational outcome, turnover. With regards to COR theory, as far as we know, we are the first to apply this theory to the study of identity threat in a dirty work context. The results of our exploratory study suggest the importance of COR in furthering our understanding of this unique work context.

Our findings have practical relevance in terms of recruiting and socialization practices for dirty work occupations. Consistent with the realistic job preview literature, providing access to job information is important for staving off turnover. Job information may be even more crucial in a dirty work context because of the stigmatized nature of the tasks and job. Dirty work organizations may benefit by incorporating information related to both the nature of the work as well as the positive value of the work in both their recruitment and socialization practices. Additionally, organizations may benefit from the inclusion of adaptive coping skills training and interventions, which will help dirty workers effectively deal with the unique stressors of the dirty work context.

**Limitations and conclusion**

Three characteristics of our study provide context for the interpretation of our results, and potential directions for future research. First, our relatively small sample size, although large given that it was a longitudinal study of newcomers, diminished the power of our analyses and the results must be interpreted with caution. Second, our sample consisted of one occupation within the larger dirty work classification; future research should explore a variety of dirty work occupations in a single turnover study. Finally, we did not propose a complete process model of turnover; therefore, we have only a partial picture of turnover within dirty work. Specifically, we were not able to directly test the theorized processes underlying the observed relationships between our predictors and turnover. Also, a more complete model would have allowed examination of more complex hypotheses. Nonetheless, our study is the first to examine predictors of turnover within the unique context of dirty work, which has the potential of advancing dirty work theory and prompting additional context-driven turnover research amongst a large number of diverse organizations containing dirty jobs.
References


