Withdrawal of Labour: Perceptions of Self and Others, Multi-item Behavioural Constructs and Low Morale

by

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B.Bus, B.Mgt, (Hons)

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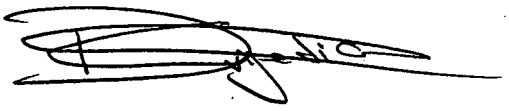
ABSTRACT

The present research uniquely proposes a conglomeration, linking behavioural intention (Azjen & Madden, 1986), low employee morale (Johnsrud, 1996) and the enactment of self-serving bias as part of an ego protective mechanism (Blau 1994, Harrison & Schaffer 1994) in the context of multi-item behavioural withdrawal constructs (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990/1991) to form "withdrawal of labour". It additionally encompasses the withdrawal behaviours of minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfer and exit. For this research, "self" means perceptions of employees intended withdrawal behaviours, and "others" means the employees perception of the intended withdrawal behaviours of their colleagues within the organisation. 655 employees of South Australian government departments were sampled, of which 266 were found to be individuals with low morale as determined by an amended morale survey developed from Johnsrud's (1996) test. All participants were asked to think in terms of "low morale" when responding to the questionnaire regarding withdrawal behaviours for the self reports and reports for others, as part of a double control for low morale.

Using Paired t-test analysis, it was found that employees underestimated their own withdrawal behaviours and overestimated withdrawal behaviours for others, although no significance was found for the exit behaviour. Utilising Principal Factorial Analysis, a covert factor group (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) was confirmed, whereas transfer and exit were found to be singular in nature and, as such did not belong within either an covert construct nor an overt construct (which combined transfer and exit behaviours originally). Overall, repeated measures ANOVA found that regarding the employee's self perception of behaviours reports, covert behaviour scores were lower than scores for exit and transfer behaviours. However, for the employee's perceptions of others behaviours reports, transfer and exit behaviour scores were lower than covert behaviour scores. While the current approach requires further research, support was found for Johns (1994a) self-serving bias theory, for Blau's (1998) arguments for withdrawal behaviours to be studied independently, and Hanisch and Hulin's (1990/1991) views regarding the study of withdrawal behaviours as aggregates.

DECLARATION

"I declare that this thesis presents work carried out by myself and does not incorporate without acknowledgements any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university, and, to the best of my knowledge it does not contain any materials previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text, and, all substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, is clearly acknowledged".



Danka Cvijetic-Barlow

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African Proverb: "Smooth seas do not a skilful sailor make"

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

BRIEF BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

A number of connections have been established between the areas of employee withdrawal behaviours, job satisfaction and morale. Employees in organisations have focussed on the intrinsic merits of their workplace and the rewards for their efforts, rather than just the extrinsic remuneration alone (Schermerhorn, 1996). Namely, workers considered employment as more than just a pay cheque. Employees have looked to organisations, both large and small, to enhance their skills and accommodate their needs. Conversely, as Maslow (1954) highlighted, for their part, organisations have looked for ways in which to address "workers" needs while increasing productivity.

Connections between employee withdrawal behaviours (such as intent to leave) and conditions of low morale have been established (Johnsrud, Heck & Rosser, 2000). Benitez (2002) described that low employee morale was a concern that needed to be recognised by organisations throughout the world, as it threatened the future success and efficiency of any company. Kettley (1995) proposed that organisations and managers needed to realise that employees needed satisfaction in the work they did, should enjoy working with other people, and also trust the people they worked for. As Bagshaw (2000, p61) stated, "when people in the workplace do not act with emotional intelligence the costs can be great. Low morale, bitter conflict and stress all limit business effectiveness". This suggested an interesting and important connection between organisational performance and employee attitude.

Blau (1986) for example, proposed that given the costs associated with absenteeism, turnover and lateness in the workplace, managers have been concerned about predicting and controlling these behaviours. Considerable research has been undertaken regarding the areas of absenteeism (Porter & Steers, 1973; Barlow, 1982; Goodman & Atkin, 1984; Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989; Dalton & Mesch, 1991; Johns, 1994a, b and McFarlin, 2002), employee lateness (Blau, 1995 and Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits, 2002) and turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982 and Johnsrud & Rosser 1999a, 2002). Conversely, research regarding the areas of minimal amount of work performed by an employee (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Laczo & Hanisch,

1999) and internal transfers (Dalton & Todor, 1982, 1993; Dalton & Mesch, 1992; Laczo & Hanisch, 1999 and Blau, 2000) have been investigated to a lessor degree.

Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) defined morale as being represented by an "umbrella" notion, which incorporated the state of mind regarding one's job, "including satisfaction, commitment, loyalty, and a sense of common purpose with respect to one's work" (p36). The morale construct has been used as a descriptive term, which merely summarised observed consistencies in the degree to which individuals have vigorously and enthusiastically pursued organisational goals (Scott, 1966). More often it has been used as an explanatory construct. Scott (1966) referred to this concept as being the underlying entity which "a predisposition or other intra-organismic condition" (Scott, 1966, p179) participated with other external stimuli, and determined the observed behavioural consistencies. The latter orientation led to the development of a wide variety of attitudinal-like scales, with the explanation that scores on those scales related to measures of overt behaviour, such as productivity and turnover (Scott, 1966).

Thus, management needed to understand the specific dimensions that helped shape employee attitudes toward their jobs (Rogers, Clow, & Kash, 1994). Johnsrud & Rosser, (1999a) and Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) proposed that by improving low employee morale, withdrawal behaviours (such as intent to leave) in organisations could be potentially avoided. It has also been postulated that other factors, such as self-serving biases, have also played a role in explaining withdrawal behaviours (such as absenteeism intention) in the workplace (Johns, 1994b and Harrison & Shaffer, 1994). Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994) found that an increase in self-serving biases contributed to employees underestimating their absence occurrences at work. Johns (1994a) further argued the theory of an ego-protection mechanism, in which employees underestimated their absence occurrences when compared to their perception of their colleagues absence occurrences. In other words, employees under reported their absences and over reported their colleagues absences in order to protect their egos. As a consequence, further research was warranted regarding an employee's intention to withdraw labour under conditions of low morale, both from the individual perception, and the perception of their colleagues same behaviour.

The present study measured morale using an amended morale survey designed by Johnsrud (1996), and identified respondents who exhibited low morale. Using the sample of respondents with low morale scores, the present study investigated the employees' withdrawal of labour intentions in the workplace, and examined the relationships between self and others. Additionally it further explored whether or not two forms of multi-item behavioural constructs (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991) emerged. For the current study, these constructs were labelled as covert and overt, and incorporated five withdrawal behavioural variables.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

From the Hawthorne studies of the early 1930's, to the present day, organisations have attempted to measure employee attitudes, such as morale and job satisfaction, in order to better understand employee behaviour. Behaviour, without a context in which to frame the action, has been difficult to evaluate. In order to better understand the factors that have influenced employee withdrawal behaviours, key concepts from the organisational withdrawal, morale and psychology literature have guided the current study.

From one perspective, organisational theory has attempted to "observe, quantify and explain regularities in responses of individuals and groups in organisational contexts" (Roberts, Hulin, & Rousseau, 1978, p6). Research has proposed that attitudes and behaviours of individuals have been responsible for certain withdrawal behaviours in the workplace, and that internal and external forces have influenced those behaviours.

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) supported the distinction between two types of composite organisational withdrawal constructs, namely, work and job. Work withdrawal included "behaviors dissatisfied individuals use to avoid aspects of their specific work role or minimize the time spent on their specific work tasks while maintaining their current organizational and work-role memberships" (p111). Job withdrawal was "defined as employees' efforts to remove themselves from a specific organization and their work role; withdrawal from their job" (p111).

The relatively high rates of withdrawal behaviours observed amongst employees have been seen as challenges to organisations. Withdrawal behaviours have resulted in inefficiency and instability in the workplace (Morgan & Herman, 1976). Johnsrud & Rosser (1999a) suggested that although turnover in organisations (specifically in colleges and universities) could be both a benefit and deficit; they proposed that the costs associated with turnover outweighed the benefits.

The present study used employees in the public sector in South Australia to investigate withdrawal behaviours under conditions of low morale. Specifically, it aimed to determine the relationship between an individual's intentions to participate in workplace withdrawal behaviours and conditions of low employee morale. Additionally, the present study aimed to establish whether there was a difference in employees own self-perceived workplace behaviours compared with their perception of the same behaviours for their colleagues. The current study further examined whether certain withdrawal behaviours clustered together in covert and overt constructs from an individual cognitive perspective, rather than from an organisational management perspective. The withdrawal behaviours were explored via a questionnaire, which included sets of behavioural intention questions and an amended morale survey developed by Johnsrud (1996). The set of behavioural intention questions was drawn from the surveyed literature.

The present study built upon previous research by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), Blau (1994), Johns (1994a) and Johnsrud & Rosser (2002). The concept of withdrawal behaviours as defined by Hulin (1991), covered "the set of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation" (p476). These behaviours included employee absenteeism, turnover intentions and lateness. The current study utilised aspects of these behaviours, and also investigated the behaviours regarding an employee's intent to transfer internally, and the minimal amount of work performed by an employee in the workplace. The present study extended Johnsrud & Rosser's (2002) research, and tested additional withdrawal of labour factors with respect to low morale. Additionally, instead of utilising a limited cohort group, the present research examined employees from different administrative levels across multiple State government departments within South Australia.

Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) explored the relationship between the morale of university employees, and their intent to leave work. Whereas Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) used university employees as participants, the present research more broadly used public servants from different departments within the government of South Australia. The current research extended the self-serving bias study by Johns (1994a), and compared employees' self-reports of multiple withdrawal behaviours against their perception of their colleagues' behaviours. Additionally, the current study added four extra behaviours (minimal work, lateness, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) to the single variable of absenteeism, as used by Johns (1994a). These five forms of withdrawal behaviours were defined as 'withdrawal of labour' in the present thesis.

HYPOTHESES AND METHODS OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was to firstly compare the employees' self-reports against the employees' reports for others for the five withdrawal of labour behaviours. The second part of this study aimed to investigate whether or not covert and overt factors of behavioural intention emerged when employees experienced low morale. The third aim of this study was to ascertain if there was an impact of self-serving biases with respect to covert and overt behavioral factors. The hypotheses of the study are outlined below:

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others,

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others,

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

An additional element of this study investigated the relationship between the five withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) and employee demographics (age, gender, education and position) to identify if any similarities existed with that of the wider literature.

The hypotheses were tested by using several statistical methods. The statistical method used for hypothesis one was Paired-t Test Analysis. Hypothesis two was tested by the use of Principal Axis Factor Analyses. Thirdly, hypothesis three was tested with a Factorial Repeated Measures ANOVA (two way). Finally, the overall demographics of the study were tested using MANOVA analysis.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

In the interests of consistency, a standard terminology was adopted throughout the thesis and the relevant appendices. This avoided confusion regarding semantics with respect to vague non-operationalised concepts used by the researcher. The following definitions were offered:

Withdrawal of labour: The thesis defined 'withdrawal of labour' as being the collective of five forms of withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) and their relationship with the key organisational theories of low morale, self-serving bias, individual behavioural intention and multi-item behavioural constructs.

Withdrawal behaviours: Hulin (1991, p47) defined withdrawal behaviours as "the set of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation".

Minimal work: This term incorporated Hanisch & Hulin's (1991, p111) concept of employees "avoiding the work situation by minimising the time spent on tasks, while maintaining their organisation and work role membership". Within the thesis, the term 'minimal work performed' was interchangeable with 'minimal work'. The current thesis questionnaire used the phrase "perform the minimal amount of work every day (i.e. put in very little effort)".

Tardiness: Blau (1986, p2) defined 'tardiness' as those "individuals who report to work late without permission". In this thesis, 'tardiness' was termed 'lateness'. The current thesis questionnaire used the phrase "come in to work late every day (i.e. not at work at the designated time)".

Absenteeism: Huczynski & Fitzpatrick (1989, p3) defined 'absenteeism' as "non-attendance of employees for scheduled work when they are expected to attend". In this thesis, 'absenteeism' was interchangeable with the terms 'absent' and 'absence'. The current thesis questionnaire used the phrase "be absent from work a lot (i.e. take lots of sick leave when not ill, or not coming to work and using false excuses)".

Internal transfers: Dalton & Todor (1993, p204) described 'transferring', as the process of "changing jobs or geographical locations, or both within an organization". In this thesis, 'internal transfers' described the change to another position within the organisation, as an alternative to exiting the organisation. This term was interchangeable with the terms 'transfer', 'transfers', or 'transferring' within the organisation. The current thesis questionnaire used the phrase "apply for internal transfers (i.e. applying for other positions within your department)".

Exit: Hirschman (1970) defined 'exit', as the situation when employees were ready to leave an organisation, and were actively looking for an alternative job. In the present research, 'exit' referred to the situation when an employee was resigning, leaving or quitting from the organisation. 'Exit' as a term, was interchangeable with 'exiting' the organisation. The current thesis questionnaire used the phrase "exit the organisation (i.e. resign altogether)".

Morale: Johnsrud *et al.* (2000, p36) defined employee 'morale' as an "umbrella" notion, which included the "satisfaction, commitment, loyalty, and sense of common purpose with respect to one's work".

Low morale: Johnsrud (1996, p5) stated that "low morale characterizes those employees most likely to grouse, to work begrudgingly, or to do the least work possible; they feel most alienated from the organization". In this thesis, 'low morale' referred to the negative attitude toward one's job. For example, an individual with low morale demonstrated job dissatisfaction, a lack of commitment or loyalty, and a lack of common sense of purpose with respect to their work.

Covert withdrawal behaviours: In this thesis, they were defined as the set of withdrawal behaviours (e.g. hidden and closed behaviours) that included minimal work, lateness and absenteeism. The rationale for this grouping (factor) was based on the premise that, collectively, all three behaviours represented a reduction in work behaviour whilst the employee did not change their position or status within the organisation.

Overt withdrawal behaviours: In this thesis, they were defined as the set of withdrawal behaviours (e.g. obvious and open behaviours), which included internal transfers and exiting. The rationale for this grouping (factor) was based on the premise, that both behaviours represented an employee who was actively changing their position or status, within or outside the organisation.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY AND CONTRIBUTION TO RESEARCH

The current research identified five withdrawal behaviours. It then considered the perceptions of employees' own intentions, compared with their perception of the intentions of others, in enacting the five withdrawal behaviours. Additionally, the current research used morale as a more global indicator, compared with the traditional use of single measures (such as job satisfaction) when testing withdrawal behaviours. Compared with other researchers, who have predominantly examined employees from the private sector, the present study used respondents from a public service background. The current research compressed three studies into one survey, creating an efficiency in research technique that enables ready comparisons across the hypotheses due to the use of exactly the same sample population. Thus, the current study improved research knowledge via a unique aggregation of the multiple theories encompassing employee withdrawal behaviours, multi-item behavioural constructs, self-serving biases and low employee morale.

ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter One describes the introduction of the topic. Chapter Two provides a review of the literature relevant to withdrawal behaviours. Chapter Three

describes the theoretical links to the hypotheses for the present study. Chapter Four describes the methodology and outlines the procedures used for the research. Chapter Five presents the results of the statistical analyses for the hypotheses. Chapter Six discusses the findings of the hypotheses. Chapter Seven presents the conclusions of the research and discusses the limitations, the implications and the benefits of the research, and made recommendations for future activities for research.

The reference list and appendices follows the main chapters. Appendix A includes the original morale questionnaire by Johnsrud (1996). Appendix B includes the current survey instrument, correspondence to departments and participants. Appendix C presents the SPSS output results for hypotheses and demographics.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the development of the hypotheses tested in the current study. Four sections in the chapter are presented. The first section, **Withdrawal Behaviours Theory**, describes theories that include those concerned with covert and overt behavioural factors and an overview of the individual withdrawal behaviours in the literature.

The second section, **Intent Versus Actual Behaviours,** reviews the literature regarding the arguments for investigating an employee's intention to withdraw from their work, versus an employee's actual workplace withdrawal behaviours.

The third section, **Self-Perception Versus Perception Of Others**, reviews the relevant literature that explains the advantages for investigating an employee's self-perception of their withdrawal behaviours, as compared with their perception of others (their colleagues).

The fourth section, **Linking Job Satisfaction And Morale Theory With Withdrawal Behaviours**, reviews the historical literature that describes the linkages between job satisfaction and morale theory and their potentially negative impact upon employees' withdrawal behaviours.

Given the complexity of the literature to be reviewed, this chapter presents linking commentary that enables an understanding of the development and design of the current research. To distinguish this and to demonstrate the contribution of such comments to the development of this thesis, these comments are made in the presence tense.

SECTION ONE: WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS THEORY

Background

Bluedorn (1982) defined withdrawal as "the reduction of the proportion of an individual's personality that intersected with a particular event cycle (group, family, organization etc)". Historically, studies have focused on attitudinal correlates with various forms of withdrawal from the work situation.

Examination of the early literature by Brayfield & Crockett (1955); Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell (1957) and Vroom (1964) indicated that relationships existed between job-related attitudes, absenteeism and turnover. Studies by Hulin (1966) and Mikes & Hulin (1968) also supported the relationship between job attitudes and withdrawal behaviours.

Vroom (1964) proposed "workers who are highly attracted to their jobs should be subject to stronger forces to remain in them than those who are less attracted to their jobs. These stronger forces to remain should be reflected in a lower probability of behaviours which take the person out of his job, both permanently and temporarily" (p187). Waters & Roach (1973) also found that the employees' attitudes with the work itself, and their overall job satisfaction were both predictors of temporary and permanent withdrawal from the work situation.

Job satisfaction has been referred to as being the individual's attitude toward various aspects of their job, as well as the job in general. High job role conflict, and low job role clarity, have resulted in low job satisfaction, which has, in turn, led to increased absenteeism and turnover rates (Lawler & Porter, 1967).

Early research by Porter & Steers (1973) aimed to break down the global concept of job satisfaction. Various factors in the work situation were analysed as they related to withdrawal behaviours, such as absenteeism and turnover. At a general level, job satisfaction was found to be consistently and inversely related to both forms of withdrawal. In a later study by Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974), organisational commitment was found to more appropriately discriminate between stayers and leavers, than did the various components of job satisfaction.

Hackman & Oldham (1976) proposed that enriched and intrinsically motivating jobs were characterised by high levels of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and job feedback. They hypothesised that employees who engaged in enriched jobs experienced higher levels of intrinsic motivation, and as a consequence, demonstrated higher levels of attendance compared with employees in poorly enriched jobs. Thus, individual withdrawal behaviours often reflected observable traces of employees' underlying attitudes, and their affect toward work roles (Hulin, 1991).

Other forms of withdrawal behaviour, such as presenteeism, have also been proposed (Martin, 2001). Presenteeism, described a situation whereby employees were present in the organisation, but not at their workstation (Grinyer & Singleton, 2000). This concept has also been subsumed into the category of withdrawal behaviours in the workplace.

Workplace deviance has also been purported as being a form of withdrawal behaviour. It has been described as the situation when employees either felt dissatisfied, or experienced a sense of injustice in the workplace (Robinson & Bennett, 1997). Workplace deviance has been defined as a voluntary behaviour, which often violated significant organisational norms and, as such, threatened the well being of the organisation, or its members, or both (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Examples included: when employees came into work late without permission, called in sick when not ill, took an additional or longer break than was acceptable, put little effort into their work, spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working, or engaged in personal matters instead of work sanctioned by the employer (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

Despite the fact that the literature has demonstrated that minor disruptive forms of withdrawal behaviour (such as workplace deviance) could reduce work output, the current research firstly needed to consider the more major and socially conforming behaviours, which have been incompletely investigated (Dalton & Todor, 1993). Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) investigated some of these behaviours as they related to job satisfaction. The authors presented empirical evidence supporting the distinction between two types of composite organisational withdrawal constructs, namely work and job. Work withdrawal involved behaviours which unhappy employees used to either avoid certain aspects of work, or minimise time spent on work tasks whilst maintaining their organisation and work role membership. Job withdrawal has been defined as a set of behaviours which dissatisfied individuals engaged in to avoid participation in dissatisfying working situations.

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) described a job withdrawal construct which consisted of turnover intentions (quit), desire to retire, intended retirement age, and a work withdrawal construct which consisted of lateness and absenteeism

intentions. They proposed that employees who withdrew from work were possibly responding to dissatisfaction, as they were trying to minimise the time they designated to tasks that had become distasteful to them. Unlike the individuals who were withdrawing from their job, those withdrawing from their work did not wish to cut their ties permanently. They further found that individuals with a higher educational background and who earned a higher salary were more likely to be satisfied with their work and felt that their job was more important, compared with those who had less education and earned less money.

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) noted that a lack of job importance, co-worker satisfaction and work satisfaction had a significant relationship with job withdrawal. They found that younger employees had a greater intention to withdraw from their work roles, compared with older colleagues who were more satisfied with their jobs. Younger employees engaged in more work withdrawal behaviours, including absenteeism, lateness, and unfavourable job behaviours. Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) agreed, and suggested that younger employees who had less experience were more likely to withdraw from work compared with employees in senior positions.

In reviewing the literature, it was found that Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) were amongst the first researchers to categorise withdrawal behaviours from an organisational behavioural perspective into constructs (using factor analysis). Additionally, they found that two separate constructs existed, namely job and work withdrawal.

It is difficult to analyse one type of withdrawal in isolation from others. In recent reviews, researchers in the field of organisational behaviour have debated the importance of examining withdrawal behaviours as either aggregate (Hanisch, Hulin, & Roznowski, 1998) or individual (more specific) withdrawal measures (Blau, 1998 and Johns, 1998). Previous researchers have proposed that the use of a global withdrawal concept to encapsulate all types of lateness, absence, and turnover was too broad, and inappropriate, especially if it also included those individuals who were satisfied with their jobs (Nicholson, 1977; Clegg, 1983; Johns & Nicholson, 1982 and Youngblood, 1984).

Blau (1998) created a recent literature debate when he questioned Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) model of organisational withdrawal, whereby he claimed that the aggregation of individual withdrawal behaviours into larger constructs was somewhat premature. He based this opinion on historical evidence from the literature, whereby withdrawal behaviours have been studied individually and not collectively. The current research aims to use simple groupings of withdrawal variables, and investigate whether those variables form similar constructs to that of Hanish & Hulin's (1990, 1991) research.

Blau's (1998) critique systematically reviewed each of the withdrawal behaviours in the job and work constructs. The first behaviour examined in Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) model of "work withdrawal construct" was that of "unfavourable job behaviours". Blau (1998) believed that the heading of unfavourable job behaviours was far too broad, especially when multiple individual behavioural items were classified as a collective factor. Some of these behaviours included "using the work phone for personal calls, being concerned about personal appearance and making excuses to get out of work" (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991). Blau (1998) suggested that these multiple items of behaviour should have been categorised separately under more specific headings. Some of the researchers that Blau (1998) believed to have successfully performed this were Robinson & Bennett (1995) and Becker & Martin (1995). Blau (1998) also questioned the work construct of Hanish & Hulin (1990, 1991) on several grounds. Firstly, he questioned the variation in the internal consistency scores that occurred between their 1990 and 1991 studies, and secondly the fact that the authors had changed some of their measures (varied the number of items) in their questionnaire. On taking Blau's comments into account, the current research aims to keep the constructs narrow in scope and range.

The second behaviour questioned by Blau (1998) regarded lateness behaviour, where he critised the lack of a time frame definition. He suggested that Gupta & Jenkins (1983) and Leigh & Lust (1988) were good examples of researchers who used more accurate time specific lateness measures. He questioned Hanish & Hulin's (1990, 1991) use of self-reports for all the lateness behavioural questions on three scales (how often are you late for work, how desirable is being late for work and how likely is it that you will be late to work?), when compared to his

own (1994) study, whereby he used more accurate lateness measures, such as pattern, frequency and duration indictors. Blau (1998) concluded that self-reports alone were subject to attribution biases, a point supported by researchers such as Jones & Nisbett (1972) and Payne & Nicholson (1987).

One could argue from a research perspective that determining accurate measures using Blau's (1994) indicators has also proven to be difficult. Firstly, most organisations may not have recorded such lateness data on a routine basis concerning their employees, thus availability to such data would require specific research design and approval from the employees and employers. Additionally, determining accurate records regarding the pattern, frequency and duration of an individual's lateness behaviour, may require identification of individuals, their personal time clock recordings of actual start and leave times, and access to the same individuals over a prolonged time frame. In many cases, this is likely to be nearly impossible to achieve. Confidentiality and anonymity for individual employees is likely to be breached, resulting in very poor or non-existent participation rates in such studies. As a consequence, the present research aims to avoid such problems and maintain individual anonymity and confidentiality by using 'intention to behave' as a good proxy for 'actual' behaviour (Azjen & Madden, 1986). Actual versus intent issues are discussed in a subsequent section.

The third element reviewed by Blau (1998) regarding the work construct by Hanish & Hulin (1990, 1991), concerned absenteeism as a variable. Again, Blau (1998) questioned the validity of their study based on the lack of a definition of a specific time frame. Blau (1998) suggested Johns' (1994b) study was a good example of self-report absence research, which incorporated specific time frames. Blau (1998) summarised Johns' (1994b) study, and stated that research in this area needed to make an absence accumulation interval correspond to a salient and natural time unit (e.g. for teachers this would be a school year). Blau (1998) further cited Johns' (1994b) study, and suggested that it would be prudent to make the study accumulation time long enough to enhance reliability, but the time period short enough as to preclude memory loss (e.g. 3-6 months). Interestingly, Johns (1994b) showed that under-reporting could be a function of the time frame that the respondent was required to recall in their self-reports. As this period decreased, the accuracy of self-reports increased.

Additionally it is important to carefully operationalise absenteeism, and opt for a free-response format when obtaining time-lost or frequency data (whereby lower scale categories suggested to subjects that lower rates were normal). Researchers should assume that absence questions may be threatening, and if, possible, should ask longer questions than typical to determine whether or not the behaviour has been exhibited. Additionally, they should use separate items within surveys and interviews so as to reduce self-generated validity and related artefacts.

Additionally, Blau (1998) questioned the measurement of the 'desirability of doing' the behaviour, versus enacting the actual behaviour. He raised concerns regarding a lack of absence policy measures in their studies. Both of these concerns highlighted a fundamental need to explain the meaning of terms being used, and the implicit assumptions these may bring regarding such research.

Blau (1998) also examined turnover intent, which was one of the behaviours included under the heading of the job withdrawal construct. Turnover intent was defined by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) as an aggregate of responses to questions, which related to an employee's "thinking of quitting, desirability of quitting and likelihood of quitting one's current job". Blau (1998) questioned the aggregation of such items based on the lower than expected internal consistency estimates as demonstrated by Hanish & Hulin's (1990, 1991) own results. The concept of aggregation was consistent with other researchers' methodologies such as Hom & Griffith (1991), who used a similar aggregate scale measure in their withdrawal cognitions construct. However, they used different withdrawal items and demonstrated different internal consistency scores. Blau (1998) proposed that the aggregation of independent items into constructs as demonstrated between different research groups, might have explained the lower than expected internal consistency estimates found. Thus he proposed that it was premature to aggregate certain (specific) indicators together.

Blau (1998) cited from the literature (Kopelman, Rovenpor & Milsap, 1992; Blau, 1993 and Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1994), and proposed that turnover intent was not the most immediate antecedent to actual turnover; job search behaviour might be a more proximal predictor. Research (Dalton, Krackhardt & Porter, 1981; Abelson, 1987; Campion, 1991; Barrick, Mount & Strauss, 1994 and Lee &

Mitchell, 1994) has suggested that turnover was a more complex construct process than just leaving or staying in one's job.

Blau (1998) also proposed that the heading of turnover intent was again too broad to encompass the multiple turnover causes, such as voluntary and involuntary, as well as avoidable and unavoidable turnover distinctions. He also claimed that the time frame of "several months" as used in Hanish & Hulin's (1991) study was not a good proxy for turnover intention behaviour. Blau (1998) suggested that separating turnover intent items into different time frame clusters improved reliability and validity, by capturing some of the reasons why employees left organisations. Additionally, using time frame clusters provided a more accurate measure, which improved between-cluster comparisons.

Hanish & Hulin (1990, 1991) incorporated turnover intentions, desire to retire and intended retirement age in their job withdrawal construct. Blau (1998) questioned the rationale of the aggregation of Hanish & Hulin's variables. He also questioned their use of multiple scales (thinking, desirability and likelihood of quitting one's current job) into a general job withdrawal construct, and thought that both were inappropriate based on the low internal consistency correlations.

The current research intends to avoid these complications by combining multi-item behaviours into a larger simple construct, which Blau (1998), in agreement with Fisher (1980), found 'appealing'. Rather than aggregate several turnover variables together, the present study aims to focus on employee intent to transfer and exit, avoiding the use of multiple scales as argued by Blau (1998).

Blau (1998) also discussed the relationships amongst the work withdrawal and job withdrawal indicators. Despite the fact that some of Hanish & Hulin's (1990) work and job withdrawal indicators demonstrated less strong correlations compared with others, Blau (1998) believed there was evidence in the literature to support a progression model, for example, lateness led to absence, absence led to turnover (Herzberg *et al.,* 1957). Blau (1998) also pointed out that self or supervisory-based reports of absence and lateness were subject to observer bias and attribution errors (Jones & Nisbett, 1972), and there were dangers in perceived inflation of self report scores (Crampton & Wagner, 1994). Blau (1995)

argued for the inclusion of group level measures when investigating lateness; he also cited evidence regarding group level effects on individual absences (Mathieu & Kohler, 1990; Martocchio, 1994 and Markham & McKee, 1995), which supported the existence of a more general 'culture' for these behaviours (Nicholson & Johns, 1985 and Blau, 1995).

Blau (1998) argued that transfers (or internal mobility) should have been tested under the work withdrawal construct. Blau agreed with Dalton & Todor (1987, 1993) who proposed that employees who wished to leave their jobs and have the option to transfer to an alternative job within the organisation, were less likely to leave (and be absent) compared to those who wished to move, but could not. Blau (1998) argued that researchers should focus their attention on physical withdrawal behaviours, to help distinguish these constructs from other types of deviance behaviour constructs. Further, Blau also suggested that researchers in the withdrawal behavioural area should have adopted a more direct approach when measuring these work withdrawal behaviours, and they were advised to follow many of Johns' (1994b) recommendations. Again, Blau (1998) believed that more empirical research was needed to test the validity and reliability of these refined multi-item behavioural constructs. He concluded that further research was required, and supported Fisher's (1980) view that, in general, the basic idea of creating multi-item behavioural constructs to enhance work attitude-behaviour relationships was appealing.

Johns (1998) agreed with most of the arguments and concerns raised by Blau's (1998) review, in that there are many theoretical and practical reasons why an aggregate measure does not always provide the required understanding of specific withdrawal processes. Johns (1998) did see some merit in the study of withdrawal constructs so long as they were examined properly. He stated that Blau (1998) made some useful suggestions, which improved such withdrawal behavioural measures, and that he agreed with most of the points raised by Blau. Johns (1998) believed that in Hanisch & Hulin's (1990) study, they attempted to aggregate self-reported behaviours, feelings about behaviours, expectations to engage in behaviours, intentions to engage in behaviours, and desires to engage in behaviours. Johns (1998) agreed with Blau (1998) that this was problematic, and that not all of these probes (measures) were applied equally across the various

specific withdrawal behaviours. For example, Johns (1998) proposed that whilst Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) study investigated unfavourable job behaviours, it only rated them in terms of frequency of enactment, whilst retirement was indexed only by feelings, desires and intentions. Johns (1998) commented that it was advisable to avoid mixing and matching items or variables, which had their own established theoretical statuses.

Johns (1998) believed that aggregating items, which differed in theoretical status, also caused problems. Namely, it exerted unanticipated influence in factor analyses, and confounded method and substance. He stated that Hanisch & Hulin's (1990) study reported two withdrawal factors, one composed of lateness, absenteeism, and unfavourable job attitudes, and the other comprised of turnover intentions, desire to retire, and intended retirement age. Johns (1998) expressed that if he had interpreted their method correctly, the first factor tended to favour self-reported behaviours, whilst the second was composed exclusively of intentions and desires. Johns (1998, p459) questioned, "Does this factor structure reflect substance or method?" In the light of those comments, the current research aims to refrain from some of the complexities as debated between Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), Johns (1998), Blau (1998) and Hanisch *et al.* (1998), and aims to test the measure 'intent to behave' exclusively, rather than utilising multiple scales of measure.

In Johns' (1998) opinion, there was little doubt that job dissatisfaction underpinned a certain proportion of lateness, absence, turnover, retirement and unfavourable job behaviours, whereby he claimed that there was good meta-analytical evidence which demonstrated a connection between attitude and behaviour. Johns (1998) believed that job satisfaction was itself a construct, and he questioned whether or not another construct was required to explain any shared variance seen amongst the withdrawal behaviours. Johns' (1994a, 1997) studies assembled some indirect evidence, which demonstrated that people's attributions concerning the medical causes for their absenteeism were questionable. In other words, there were additional factors which caused these apparent withdrawal behaviours to occur. Considering this, it is postulated that employee morale may be the factor that explained the variance seen in withdrawal behaviour analysis, as raised by Johns (1998). Job satisfaction has been shown to contribute to the

umbrella notion of employee morale (Benge & Hickey, 1984 and Johnsrud, 1996). This ongoing debate is covered in more detail in the next section of the literature review (Section Four: Linking Job Satisfaction And Morale Theory With Withdrawal Behaviours).

Johns (1998) believed that the concept of 'adaptation', as an underlying response to withdrawal behaviours (as postulated by Hulin, 1991), needed particular explanation. He stated that adaptation should not refer exclusively to positive outcomes, since exhibiting negative withdrawal behaviours might also alleviate job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, Johns (1998) stated that if all work behaviour was in some sense adaptive despite its consequences, adaptation was surely excess theoretical baggage (Martocchio & Harrison, 1993). Johns (1998) referred to Hulin's (1991) description of the adaptation construct, which was "defined in terms of covariances among relevant observable (withdrawal) variables; its meaning (residing) in these covariances" (p475). Johns (1998) stated that this concept seemed "isomorphic" with the withdrawal construct itself. Johns (1998) proposed that this theory could have been clearer with respect to the within-person versus between-person dynamics. He noted that although the research itself had a between-person focus, the notion of adaptation suggested a process that unfolded over time within individuals.

Working from Johns' (1998) critique, the construct of adaptation suggested some form of psychological processing. Working from the suggestions of Johns (1998), Blau (1998) and Hanisch, *et al.* (1998), it would seem plausible to adopt intention as a means of measurement when examining withdrawal behaviours in employees. Further, from the perspective of the current research, an investigation into various withdrawal behaviours from an employee's perception of self-reported actions versus their perception of their co-workers actions could ascertain if the dynamics of 'self-ego protection' found by Johns (1994a) impacts on the results of workplace withdrawal behaviours.

Johns (1998) agreed with Cronbach, Gleser, Nanda & Rajaratnam (1972) that there was a considerable burden of proof when justifying a construct which included behaviours, desires, expectations, intentions and feelings. Johns (1998) recommended that utility of the withdrawal construct should be demonstrated in

the context of contemporary, record-based research on specific withdrawal behaviours, and not by showing that it was a better criterion than its own self-reported components. Johns (1998) stated that most research on specific withdrawal behaviours has generally relied on analysis of record-based data, whereas the work of Hanisch and colleagues had exclusively utilised self-reported data. Despite potential problems with self-reported data, Johns (1998) stated that the use of self-reported data in withdrawal behaviour analysis had a distinct advantage. He believed that, in principle, its use conferred an ability to examine factors that were otherwise difficult or impossible to measure, such as absence due to child care problems, or turnover as a consequence of spouse career change. Following this premise, Johns (1998) agreed with Blau (1998), that Hanisch and colleagues should have asked about lateness, absence, turnover, and retirement that reflected dissatisfaction or withdrawal motives.

Working from the Johns (1998) and Blau (1998) reviews, the present research aims to examine employee withdrawal behaviour from a self-reported intent perspective. It has been shown to be the most favourable method (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) to use when examining employee withdrawal processes (such as absence, transfers and exit). Access to government records regarding employee attendance is near impossible to obtain, due to employee confidentiality clauses. This has certainly been found in the public service in Australia. Behaviours such as lateness and minimal work have been difficult to measure. Additionally, it has proven difficult to obtain accurate data regarding these behaviours (Koslowsky, 2000).

Measuring an employee's input and output performance (minimal work) as it relates to low morale and lateness behaviour has proved challenging enough, without it being exposed to attribution bias (Jones & Nisbett, 1972), or perceived inflation by co-workers (Crampton & Wagner, 1994), or inaccurate supervisory record keeping. Even if such data was accessible by a researcher, data collation by payroll officers may be subject to human recording error (Koslowsky, 2000). One could argue that it may be possible that a number of employee records (e.g. sick leave forms) could be lost in bureaucratic administration, resulting in inaccurate employee records. Furthermore, actual records may not be as predictive for employee behaviour as intention to behave, because actual organisational records

may not reflect an employee's perception of their current behaviours of themselves and others.

Johns (1998) acknowledged that there is a well-developed theory and body of research which illustrated that behavioural intent predicts absence (Martocchio, 1992 and Harrison, 1995) and turnover (Hom & Griffeth, 1995) in the context of more complex models regarding those behaviours. Johns (1998) concluded, "I would welcome extensive construct validity evidence for the proposed withdrawal construct with particular emphasis on its predictive and discriminant validity". Johns (1998) proposed that an employee's intent to perform certain behaviours (e.g. absence) was a good indicator for the actual behaviours (e.g. absence), and that more research was required regarding the formulation of withdrawal behavioural constructs.

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) responded to the critique by Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) regarding Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) earlier research on behavioural aggregates. They believed that Blau's (1998) critique provided them with the opportunity to describe, "additional theoretical and empirical work supporting this line of scientific inquiry" (p463).

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) countered Blau's (1998) argument concerning categorisation of withdrawal behaviours (such as absenteeism) on the basis that the empirical advantages of these arbitrary classifications were marginal at best (based on Martocchio, 1989 and Hackett, 1990), and may only serve to exacerbate the already serious distributional problems of these typically binary measures. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued that when researchers narrowed their measures to improve the predictability of specific behaviours, the understanding of the basic psychological processes that are related to the family of behaviours was reduced. Had their research focussed on the psychological processes behind the behaviours, rather than the predictability of behaviours in the organisation, a large proportion of the debate may not have eventuated.

Additionally, Hanisch *et al.* (1998) cited Breckler (1984), and argued the need for multiple independent measurements of behaviour. "No single measure can be assumed to capture the full nature of an unobservable construct" (Breckler, 1984,

p1193). Breckler proposed that composite measures might produce truer assessments of underlying hypothetical constructs compared with single measures. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued for aggregation across behaviours. They cited classical test theory, whereby the sum of a set of multiple measures was a more "stable and representative estimator" than any single measure (Rushton, Brainerd & Pressley, 1983). Hanisch *et al.* (1998) agreed with Blau (1998) that psychometric precision was necessary in assessing behavioural counts. However, they argued that narrowing their measures to the extent that it reduced relevant heterogeneity of their measures (precision), misinterpreted their psychometric and theoretical goals.

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued that assessment of behaviours should be viewed as slices or cross-sectional snapshots from an ongoing stream of behaviour. To avoid converting what is seen in any narrow slice of time, and to understand the entire spread of behavioural responses, one should look at persistence in behaviour across time and over situations. They claimed that there was no sound empirical or theoretical basis for making decisions regarding temporal intervals over which to aggregate or even study organisational withdrawal. In principle, the arguments they expressed were relevant and accurate. This appeared to form part of Blau (1998) and Johns' (1998) uncertainty regarding the measurement of behaviours. Thus, if researchers wished to capture a snapshot-by-snapshot understanding of what was happening with the behaviours in question, the methodologies used needed to adopt a time-series approach (such as sampling the same people at regular intervals over a longer period of time), and needed to match this to composite multiple measures. As noted previously, the current research intends to bypass these concerns by simply utilising a measurement of intent to behave.

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) have argued that people behave in patterned and lawful ways (Weiss & Ilgen, 1985). It has been noted that individual behaviours can rapidly lose their capacity and strength to either increase positive affect, or reduce negative affect (Fichman, 1988). Managers have had difficulty in predicting which specific behaviours employees would select, due to frequent behavioural switching and because of the highly individualised nature of behavioural choice (Roznowski, Rosse & Miller, 1992 cited in Hanisch *et al.*, 1998). Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued that if researchers integrated behaviours, they may find that the

relative frequency of behaviours might form more stable clusters compared with isolated responses. These clusters, in turn, should be more predictable than single behaviours, and as such be more amenable to inclusion with generalisable theories of employee behaviour (Hanisch, 1995a). Before behaviours can be aggregated into an appropriate cluster or group, one needs to establish whether or not they truly belong to such a group via appropriate statistical testing. Consequently, the current research intends to utilise factor analysis to determine whether a natural grouping of behaviours actually exists.

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) highlighted Hulin, Roznowski & Hachiya's (1985) findings, which demonstrated that job dissatisfaction was not necessarily translated into intentions to leave an organisation; turnover intention may be prevented because of a lack of alternative job opportunities. Greenhalgh (1980) predicted that the inability to quit a dissatisfying job was likely to result in an uninvolved and unmotivated syndrome of behaviour, because the cognitions that led to dissatisfaction remained intact, even when an individual could not quit. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) speculated that these same cognitions could result in decisions for individuals to withhold job inputs, whilst keeping job outputs at the same level, in order to reduce job dissatisfaction.

Johns (1991) proposed that certain constraints in behaviour stemmed from actual organisational conditions, such as the organisational subculture or technology. Johns also found that formal control systems (sick leave policies) also constrained and directed employee behaviour, i.e. constraints effectively determined the particular parameters and patterning of the behavioural syndromes within the unit under investigation. Johns further explained that self-report behaviour counts were likely to be constrained by the negative nature of the behaviour itself. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) used Hanisch's (1995a) findings to make the point that organisational withdrawal domains included organisational constraints also. Some of these constraints included: strict attendance policy, legal sanctions, required role behaviours and economic conditions, all of which influenced the response thresholds of withdrawal behaviours.

Research has demonstrated that job dissatisfaction is modified by many different inputs. Job satisfaction has been shown to influence employee morale (Johnsrud,

1996). Consequently, low employee morale has influenced employees' intentions to leave organisations (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Turnover intention, absence, lateness, transfers and unfavourable job behaviours, have been considered as forms of workplace withdrawal which employees enacted in response to dissatisfaction (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). Consequently, the current research aims to employ morale as a broader umbrella instrument with which to measure withdrawal behaviours.

Hanisch (1995a) demonstrated that personal values and attitudes, family and/or social pressures (including co-workers, unions, and other group norms or pressures) are additional influences that modified withdrawal behaviours. Employees enact certain behaviours, according to the perceived ability for the behaviour to alleviate the job dissatisfaction or negative attitude. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued that issues such as these should be considered when evaluating employee's behaviours.

In conclusion, Hanisch *et al.* (1998) argued "the inconsistent results noted by Blau (1998) between our studies and between subsamples within one study, rather than being a weakness of the behavioural family approach, should be regarded as a strength of the approach. We would expect negative job attitudes to get translated into a variety of withdrawal behaviours" (Hanisch *et al.,* 1998 p471). Hanisch *et al.* (1998, p471) additionally stated, "But which specific set of withdrawal behaviours become manifest as a result of negative job attitudes by individuals or by subsamples in an organization is a function of the situation and job constraints". They believed there was sound argument for studying multiple withdrawal behaviours, for the reason that when one or more of the behaviours were modified by environmental, organisational, or individual factors, other behaviours were often enacted in their place.

A latter study by Laczo & Hanisch (1999) built on the previous existing model designed by Hanisch & Hulin (1990) regarding organisational withdrawal behaviours. The two constructs (job and work withdrawal) were examined in volunteer workers and paid employees working within the same organisation. Organisational withdrawal consisted of a general group of behaviours and

intentions that were consequences of negative job attitudes and other antecedents (Hanisch, 1995b).

Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) article reviewed the original study, and stated that 'job withdrawal' consisted of the set of behaviours, which individuals enacted, in an effort to remove themselves from their organisation and job, and that this also included behaviours such as quitting and retiring. Both quitting and retiring were assessed as being voluntary behaviours. Thus, employees had the choice of quitting or retiring as opposed to being fired or forced to retire. 'Work withdrawal' was identified as the set of behaviours, which individuals enacted, to avoid specific work tasks whilst maintaining organisational membership, and this included lateness, absence and unfavourable job behaviours. Both lateness and absenteeism were assessed as being the actual enactment of the behaviour, or the desire to engage in the behaviour. Unfavourable job behaviours, such as failing to attend company meetings and taking frequent or long coffee or lunch breaks, are behaviours which organisations have typically not monitored or recorded unless they became excessive (Hanisch, 1995b).

Laczo & Hanisch (1999) cited a suggestion by Blau (1998), whereby intention to transfer within an organisation should have been tested under the 'work withdrawal construct'. Blau (1998) also stated that he was aware that this concept had only been tested in one other instance, in an unpublished masters thesis by Stewart, 1996 (cited in Blau, 1998). Laczo & Hanisch (1999) included intention to transfer in their study, however, they believed that it was more appropriately classified as part of the 'job withdrawal construct', as it supposedly occurred when an individual desired to be removed from his or her current job situation, and not his or her current work tasks (Stewart, 1996 cited in Blau, 1998). The current research intends to test the concept of intention to transfer (internal transfers) and include it with turnover intent (exiting the organisation) to form an overt construct. Formal categorisation of this construct would only be possible after testing with factorial analysis.

In Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) study, their revised model illustrated the antecedents and behavioural families of organisational withdrawal hypothesised for both volunteer workers and paid employees working within the same organisation

(partially adapted from Hanisch & Hulin (1990) and Hanisch (1995a). The figure below (Fig. 2.1) depicts the antecedents and behavioural families of organisational withdrawal for both paid and volunteer employees within the same organisation.

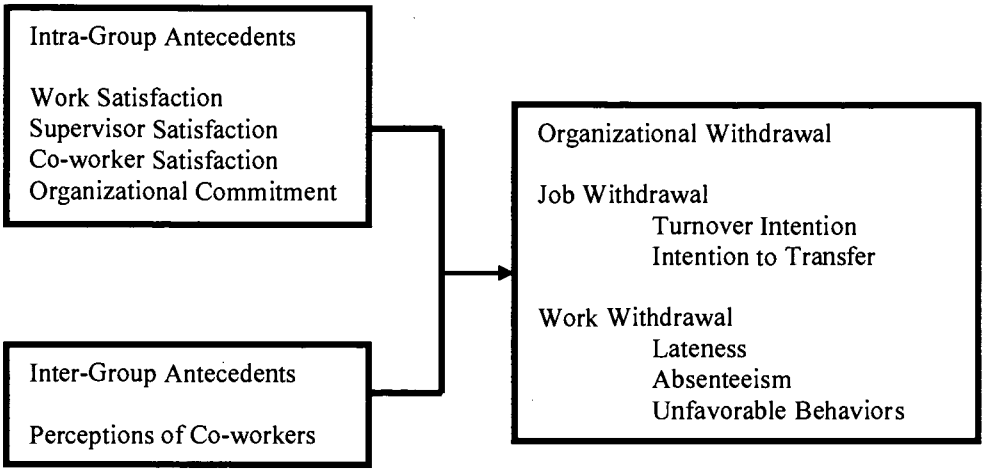

Figure 2.1 Antecedents and behavioral families of organizational withdrawal. (Source: Laczo, R. M., and Hanisch, K. A. (1999). An examination of behavioral families of organizational withdrawal in volunteer workers and paid employees. *Human Resource Management Review*, 9, 453-477.)

In Figure 2.1 the Intra-Group Antecedents (on the top left hand corner of the diagram) reflected the individual effects of work attitudes for volunteer and paid employees, and included: Work Satisfaction, Supervisor Satisfaction, Co-worker Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment variables. Previous research (Roznowski & Hanisch, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Molitor, 1998) has demonstrated that intra-group facets of job satisfaction influenced job withdrawal and work withdrawal behaviours in the workplace.

Continuing in Figure 2.1, the Inter-Group Antecedents (on the bottom left hand corner of the diagram) reflected the interactive effects regarding work attitudes of volunteer workers and their Perceptions of Co-workers. These variables represented the perceptions and feelings of paid employees with respect to volunteer workers (i.e. paid employee satisfaction with volunteer workers), and vice versa. Research has also demonstrated that inter-group perception of co-workers (paid employees and volunteers workers) influences both job and work withdrawal. In other words, it affected the attitudes each type of worker had towards each other (Allen, 1987).

The organisational withdrawal box (right hand side of diagram) depicted the multiple behavioural responses that an individual may enact as expressions of dissatisfaction. This included the Job Withdrawal construct, which was comprised of Turnover Intention and Intention to Transfer, and the Work Withdrawal construct, which was comprised of Lateness, Absenteeism and Unfavorable Behaviours.

Laczo & Hanisch (1999) used a confidential questionnaire, and voluntarily tested 60 paid employees, and 96 volunteer workers, who worked at an historical tourist site in the Midwest of the United States. Their questionnaire provided an overall measure for organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and utilised a Job Descriptive Index (JDI) survey as described by Roznowski, (1989). Organisational withdrawal was assessed using 29 items adapted from the studies by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) and Stewart 1996 (cited in Blau, 1998). Regression analysis was used in their study to provide statistical results.

Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) study demonstrated that when volunteer workers and paid employees did not perceive each another in a positive manner, their perceptions were manifested as intentions to leave the organisation, or to transfer to a different position within the organisation. Interestingly, the manifestations did not result in lateness, absence or unfavourable job behaviours. The authors proposed that this was a reflection of workers wishing to remove themselves from a presumably unpleasant situation within the organisation, and not the attempt to remove themselves from their work tasks. Results also demonstrated that volunteer workers exhibited lower levels of both job withdrawal and work withdrawal, in comparison with paid employees. Additionally, it was found that volunteer workers had slightly higher organisational commitment compared with paid employees.

There were a number of potential limitations associated with Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) study. Firstly, their sample size was low (n = 156). Secondly, they used a relatively limited selection of participants in their sample (tourist participants in one organisation in the State of Iowa, USA). Thirdly, 'transfer intentions' were assumed by the researchers to belong in the "work withdrawal construct". However, they did not actually empirically test this assumption via factor

analysis. To date, it has remained as an unanswered question. The present research aims to improve these limitations, by the use of a wider sample population, and by using low morale as an alternative to organisational commitment, which Laczo & Hanisch (1999) utilised in their study. As indicated throughout this section, a strong intention of the current research is to demonstrate support for any such assumptions, and establish whether or not 'transfers' and 'turnover intentions' actually load together as a factor.

Covert and overt factors as withdrawal behaviours

Terms such as covert and overt, have been used in the area of psychological and cognitive research. Covert conditioning has been described as a set of behavioural change techniques that incorporate the "inside" aspects of the human experience (Yager, 1975). Covert behaviours, such as thinking, feeling and imagining are essential components of covert conditioning approaches (Yager, 1975). From the classical conditioning model by Cautela (1969), it has been proposed that by reducing covert actions, one reduces the probability of other specific covert behaviours occurring. Cautela (1969) further stated that the reduction of these target behaviours, in turn, resulted in a decrease of overt maladaptive behaviours. Scott (1966) proposed an explanatory construct, whereby underlying predispositions (when combined with external stimulation) led to changes in individual morale. The changes in individual morale then related to measures of overt behaviours, such as turnover.

Whilst the above theoretical construct by Cautela (1969) seemed to have limited application to the current research, there were possible groupings of behaviours which could appear to be covert (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) or overt (internal transfers and exiting the organisation) in nature. For example, covert behaviours can be concealed from view or measurement, and these appeared to reflect the behaviours in the 'work withdrawal constructs', whilst other behaviours appeared more open to view and measurement, and fitted the 'job withdrawal constructs' as described by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) and Laczo & Hanisch (1999).

The present research aims to describe two unique constructs concerning withdrawal of labour from a cognitive (intentional) perspective, rather than from a conventional organisational behavioural management perspective. Additionally, the present research aims to examine the withdrawal behaviours of 'minimal work performed' and 'internal transfers', which have had limited empirical examination in the literature, as they relate to employee morale (Johnsrud *et al.*, 2000) and self-serving bias (Johns, 1994b).

While the current research aims to focus on withdrawal of labour as a collective concept, the review of literature needed to firstly consider the behaviours individually to understand how they may be related to one another. Koslowsky (2000) posited that minor withdrawal behaviours were the first step in the withdrawal progression, and these behaviours were the consequence of negative attitudes, which then resulted in more severe forms of withdrawal. As Gupta & Jenkins (1983) stated, attitudinal variables were the driving force for withdrawal, and various withdrawal behaviours were seen as the responses to attitudes held by the employee.

Thus, when individuals perform a minimal amount of work, come in late, are absent from work, transfer internally or exit the organisation they may be projecting their negative feelings toward the specific organisation. However, more stable and general responses to various non-attitudinal variables (such as transport issues or family conflict), or a combination of these categories, could also be responsible for the individual withdrawal behaviours.

Minimal work

One response, of an individual's negative attitude towards an organisation, could be that of performing minimal work. Research, regarding this type of withdrawal behaviour has received little attention. Decreasing work performance could be argued to be conceptually similar to lateness and absence. The difference between these behaviours might be that lateness and absence could arise external to the workplace, whilst minimal work might represent a set of internal behaviours, that reduces work output whilst being at work (within the workplace).

Accordingly, it could be argued that 'minimal work performed' could be included in Hanisch & Hulin's (1991) concept of 'work withdrawal', which was seen as the response used by "dissatisfied individuals to avoid aspects of their work role or minimise time spent on their specific work tasks" (p111). Johnsrud (1996) suggested that "low morale characterizes those employees most likely to grouse, work begrudgingly, or do the least work possible; they feel most alienated from the organization" (p5). Johnsrud (1996) further pointed out that it was in the best interest of organisations to ensure the high morale of their employees, because successful organisations should realise that their employees are their most important resource. In other words, it can be argued that if employees remain satisfied with their working conditions, they are less likely to withdraw from work (for example, less likely to perform a minimal amount of work).

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) were among the first researchers to examine this type of behaviour ("minimize work spent on tasks", p111), and suggested that this behaviour was actually part of a larger dimension, called "work withdrawal". As Koslowsky (2000) indicated, if one of the common elements in this category is withholding effort, the worker, in many cases, can under perform or under produce without being noticed. Koslowsky (2000) found that "monitoring this behaviour is quite difficult and may require intra-individual comparisons as well as inter-individual ones" (p397). In the current study, only intention to perform minimal amount of work will be examined, thus avoiding the above issues raised by Koslowsky (2000).

Skarlicki & Folger (1997) found in their study of workplace retaliation that, when staff members were dissatisfied with their workplace, they retaliated against the organisation, i.e. withdrew from their work responsibilities. Under such conditions of dissatisfaction, it was noted that employees often engaged in negative behaviours, such as trying to look busy whilst wasting time, taking extended coffee or lunch breaks, intentionally working slower, or alternatively spending time on personal matters whilst at work.

In a similar manner, Bennett & Robinson (2000) examined deviant workplace behaviours, and reported that employees were capable of performing unfavourable behaviours in the workplace when dissatisfied and frustrated. In particular, staff

engaged in activities relating to personal matters instead of employer dictated work, took additional or longer breaks than acceptable in the workplace, came in late to work without permission, intentionally worked slower, left their work for someone else to finish, or put little effort into their work. The study additionally found that younger employees with minimal work experience were more likely to participate in these deviant behaviours, compared with older employees who had higher qualifications.

Koslowsky (2000) noted that if these types of behaviour remained unchecked in the workplace, the practical or financial implications were far ranging. It was possible that the organisation could lose much more, both in time and money, as a result of these minor behaviours compared with actual lateness or absence occurrences.

Blau (1998) also discussed a similar concept regarding minimal work, however, he labelled this as "unfavourable job behaviours", and identified items such as personal phone calls, making excuses for getting out of work, and poor quality of work, as belonging to this category. After reviewing the empirical findings in the literature, Blau felt that it was somewhat premature to form larger aggregate categories (i.e. work withdrawal vs. job withdrawal constructs) using these behaviours and other withdrawal measures. This contrasted with the conclusions of Hanish & Hulin (1990, 1991).

In Koslowsky's (2000) model, which aligned with the Hanish and Hulin school of thought, minor withdrawal behaviours were placed at the beginning of the withdrawal process, for the fact that they appeared as being less obvious compared with lateness. Koslowsky further noted that minor withdrawal tended to occur during the day whilst the employee was officially at the job. Additionally, these behaviours were difficult to assess objectively via frequency or duration measures. Some of the behaviours included, "social loafing, long lunch breaks, excessive socialising with colleagues during the workday and shirking one's responsibility and duties" (p396). Rosnow & Rosenthal (1996) suggested that recording such behaviours (e.g. via diaries or anonymous surveys) was advantageous, especially when attempting to make performance evaluation schemes more meaningful.

Rosse (1988) agreed that the relatively neglected modes of withdrawal, including psychological withdrawal methods such as social loafing, leaving work early, and sabotage, were important components of the overall withdrawal process. As with absence and turnover, it appeared likely that 'minor' withdrawal behaviours might also have unique antecedents. Koslowsky (2000) proposed that the occurrence of these behaviours indicated a response to affective stimuli, which, under certain conditions, led to more obvious behaviours such as lateness.

Lateness

As compared with absence and turnover, relatively few studies examining lateness as a measure of organisational withdrawal have been reported (Blau, 1994). Blau (1986) described unexcused tardiness as "individuals who report to work late without permission" (p2). Hulin (1991) stated that lateness was another costly behaviour, which impacted on the workplace. For an organisation, lateness has many financial and non-financial costs. Additionally, employee lateness has both economic and psychological implications. When productivity or outputs are affected, an organisation's efficiency may be compromised (Steers & Rhodes, 1978 and Blau, 1994).

Researchers have found that lateness behaviour in workers sends a negative psychological message to others. Jamal (1984) and Cascio (1987) demonstrated that morale and work motivation within organisations were likely to deteriorate when certain employees continuously appeared tardy. Hence, co-workers who have seen one of their colleagues constantly arriving late, particularly if the workplace ethics and boundaries were not clearly defined or apparent, started to mimic these undesirable behaviours. Lateness differed from most other organisational behaviours in that it was often partially or entirely "invisible". As compared with absence and turnover, lateness was not as apparent, and was more readily hidden. Absence has been described as a prominent behaviour, as it is obvious to both supervisors and co-workers when colleagues are missing (Koslowsky, 2000). Whilst absence in the workplace is usually recorded by means of pay sheet documentation, lateness behaviour is often difficult to measure and record, and as such, is often an under quantified behaviour.

Organisational commitment is another attitudinal variable that has been examined as a correlate of lateness (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Clegg, 1983; Blau, 1986 and Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994). According to Koslowsky's (2000) model, high scores on commitment were indicative of an employee's desire to avoid sabotaging links with their organisation. As a consequence of this, lateness behaviours (at least the conscious or avoidable types) were generally minimised or avoided. Blau (1994) found that employees who were never late to work had significantly higher levels of organisational commitment than employees who arrived late. A similar result was reported in an unpublished account by Bercovits & Koslowsky (cited in Koslowsky, 2000), who used discriminant analysis to demonstrate that organisational commitment was one of the predictors that significantly discriminated between late and never-late employees.

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) labelled lateness and absence as work withdrawal behaviours, in comparison with turnover, which was labelled as job withdrawal behaviour. They suggested that both late and absent employees withdraw from work whilst maintaining organisational and job role memberships. In their attempt to explain the nature of the relationship between withdrawal behaviours and work attitudes, Hanisch & Hulin (1990) described that withdrawal behaviours occurred as a result from possible outcomes of negative work attitudes, such as job dissatisfaction or a low level of organisational commitment. According to this theory, dissatisfied workers were often late, or manifested other withdrawal behaviours that reflected their negative attitudes.

Some researchers have claimed that the use of the label 'withdrawal' for attendance behaviours is inadequate and even misleading (Nicholson, 1977; Johns & Nicholson, 1982 and Clegg, 1983). They argued that not being at work at a given time might not necessarily indicate negative feelings toward the organisation or demonstrate withdrawal. Although some causes of lateness (i.e. health or sickness antecedents) are undoubtedly beyond the employee's control, tardiness can frequently be avoided. For example, Blau (1994) argued that adequate time management reduces lateness occurrences, even when the potential causes are not within the employee's direct control. Thus, the choice to come to work late is more a consequence of an employee's conscious decision.

An additional factor, which has influenced lateness behaviour, is that of culture. Culture has been described from both a societal and an organisational perspective. In society at large, people have certain beliefs, assumptions, and values that help form certain norms and influence attitudes and behaviour. In particular, timeframes for people have demonstrated to be partially related to cultural contexts. For example, people from Western cultures have different concepts of work time and leisure time compared with those from the Middle or Far East (Manrai & Manrai, 1995).

A second aspect of culture that should be considered concerned the influence that an organisation's socialisation process had upon the individual. For example, norms and organisational culture within the employee group often determined the type and level of work behaviour expected from someone (Hatch, 1993).

Additional elements, such as environmental factors have also influenced withdrawal from the workplace. Commuting to work is one such factor. In modern day culture, commuting entails many types of environmental stimuli, each of which has had negative organisational behaviours associated with it (Koslowsky, 2000). Novaco, Stokols, & Milanesi (1990); Novaco, Kliewer, & Broquet (1991) and Koslowsky, Kluger, & Reich (1995) have proposed that commuting to work is characterised by potentially stressful components, which have been associated with lateness behaviour. Research has demonstrated that absenteeism, turnover, and performance were all affected by commuting (Knox, 1961; Novaco *et al.,* 1990 and Schaeffer, Street, Singer, & Baum, 1988). Similarly, lateness, which can be considered a logical outcome of commuting-related stressors such as traffic jams, difficulty in parking or car breakdown, was found, in at least one study, to increase as the commuting distance also commensurably increased (Leigh & Lust, 1988).

In a previous study, Nicholson & Goodge (1976) found that lateness was negatively correlated with commuting distance, although only amongst female workers. They postulated that the short commuting distances on public transport (such as a bus or train), afforded more opportunities for lateness, when compared with infrequent schedules with much longer trips. The findings regarding the gender differences were explained by the fact that females were seen to utilise

public transport more often, compared with males. Additionally, factors such as weather conditions (Muesser, 1953) may also have an impact as to when an employee arrives at work. In a review of variables that influenced the work environment, Gaffuri & Costa (1986) argued that the simple fact that employees commute to work would inevitably result in the odd late arrival at work. Gaffuri & Costa (1986) felt that lateness was one of the main negative consequences of the commuting phenomenon, and in the long run, may eventually affect workers' wellbeing and productivity.

Personality has been considered as a factor which may impact upon lateness behaviours. Certain traits (that make up an individual's disposition) are considered to underlie one's personality and generally predict a broad range of behaviours. Although some researchers reported only moderate relationships between certain personality traits and employee withdrawal (Bernardin, 1977 and Barrick & Mount, 1993), Mischel & Shoda (1998) proposed in their study on personality, that the relationships between certain personality traits and withdrawal processes might be strengthened if researchers focussed on the interlinking processes between personality and withdrawal, rather than personality or withdrawal themselves. For example, whereas neuroticism (as a personality trait) has been shown to moderate the intensity of negative affect in the workplace, it may not result in an increase in lateness, or other withdrawal behaviours. Individuals displaying conscientious behaviours (another personality trait) may still arrive on time, though they dislike the work. Such individuals may be activating certain types of mediational units (the importance of coming on time) and deactivating others (the unpleasant working environment). For others, perhaps because of other personal or situational variables, the opposite behavioural pattern may manifest itself. Whilst personality may influence lateness behaviour, it has been shown that it may be necessary to determine the situation and understand the "dynamic interacting processing system" (Mischel & Shoda, 1998, p237) before a final conclusion regarding the personality-lateness link can be made.

Whilst the single demographic variables, such as gender, age and education have been demonstrated to be weakly correlated with lateness behaviour (Koslowsky *et al.*, 1997), the use of multiple demographic correlates, such as family-work

conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) have proven more favourable in predicting lateness and other withdrawal measures. When an individual is faced with a choice between family and work commitments, those who perceived their family responsibilities as being more important to them than their work responsibilities may choose to be late for work or absent from their jobs. Thus, demands stemming from the individual's role as an employee (arriving at work on time) have been shown to conflict with demands in the family domain (e.g. taking care of young children in the morning). This assumption was demonstrated in Blau's (1994) study, where employees who were never late to work were seen to be less likely to have dependent children. Blau proposed that this finding seemed logical, based on his findings that demonstrated that most of the participants in the study were female. Additionally, Blau noted that women were more often associated with family and work conflict, especially those who had dependent children at home.

As Koslowsky (2000) pointed out, unlike certain behaviours that have often been discussed in relation to their organisational context (e.g. performance, absence, and turnover), lateness has been shown to have clear counterparts in non-work related activities. For example, an individual who is chronically late for work may also be tardy when meeting friends or going to social engagements, and thus may suffer from some form of time management problem. Punctuality may be considered as the complement of lateness. Conceptually, punctuality is a discrete behaviour, which, by definition, can only occur if an individual arrives to work on time. It has been described as an observable phenomenon that differs qualitatively from lateness, in that lateness may occur on many levels (i.e. one minute, one hour, many times), however there is only one way that a person can be punctual. For example, an employee arriving early to work by one minute is not any less punctual than one whom arrives early by one hour.

From this perspective, punctuality can be considered as being a discrete and noncontinuous behaviour by nature. Such a distinction seems especially appropriate when trying to identify a personality characteristic as a correlate of punctual behaviour. As lateness behaviour may have many causes or correlates, an analysis that wishes to identify the role of personality must try to neutralise or isolate these other factors. It was suggested by Koslowsky (2000) that a punctual

versus nonpunctual distinction is preferred over the use of some form of continuous lateness measure (e.g. frequency count, total time late, ect.).

Although Blau (1994) did not investigate non work-related indicators, he suggested that it might be possible to distinguish between a person who never arrived late and one who did. In discussing some of the potential correlates of this distinction, Blau argued that a person's need to arrive on time appeared to be an underlying personality construct that may affect behaviour. This trait seemed to represent a consistent and stable trait, as it was shown to be present in both work and non-work situations (Richard & Slane, 1990).

Blau (1994) proposed that an individual who cuts things too close, that is, one who felt that they had all the time in the world to get to work, may be more susceptible to un-anticipated antecedents of lateness, such as traffic restrictions or poor weather. Again, he suggested that such a characteristic may manifest itself across several aspects of an individual's life, including their social, leisure, and work activities.

Job satisfaction is a variable that has been analysed in conjunction with lateness behaviour (Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz & Singer, 1997). Rosse & Hulin (1985) and Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) argued that lateness is a behavioural outcome of certain organisational attitudes such as dissatisfaction. Accordingly, the employee who is seen to be arriving late to work may be consciously or unconsciously expressing negative feelings or dissatisfaction with the organisation. Low job satisfaction has also been correlated with employee lateness in other studies (Adler & Golan, 1981 and Gupta & Jenkins, 1983).

Alternatively, it has been suggested that the causal link between dissatisfaction and lateness may very well be in the opposite direction. Clegg (1983) found that "lateness and absence behaviours elicit responses that influence the subsequent affect of the individual" (p99). Regardless of whether lateness is an antecedent or consequence of work attitudes, the concept that both phenomena are related to each other is consistent with findings by Hanisch & Hulin (1990). Overall, both of the above studies predicted that a positive relationship between negative attitudes and lateness occurs. Thus, it has been shown that high job satisfaction and

organisational commitment is expected to be associated with less frequent occurrences of lateness. In summary, Koslowsky's (2000) model suggested that, in many cases, lateness could be attributed to be either a direct or a moderating effect of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Although Koslowsky's (2000) research concentrated on the antecedents and processes that contributed to employee lateness, there were some practical implications that could be inferred from the study. Koslowsky (2000) posited that a manager, who could predict the likelihood of unfavourable behaviours occurring in their employee group, had a better chance of reducing or controlling its occurrence. Therefore, an organisational survey that indicated higher levels of dissatisfaction (i.e. low morale in the current research) along with more frequently occurring lateness behaviours, could act as a marker tool, which managers could use to initiate intervention before absences, or even turnover became apparent. If one accepted this argument, it would be assumed that minor withdrawal measures would lead to lateness behaviours, if negative attitudes increased. Additionally, if the individual felt inequity at a particular level, then a higher level of withdrawal may be necessary in order to restore equity. Koslowsky (2000) suggested that a similar process may continue through absence and turnover.

Absenteeism

A large proportion of absenteeism research over the past 20 years (particularly that of the conceptual work) has focussed on absenteeism's origins or causes. The vast number of predictions these theories and hypotheses have made, the breadth of approaches they have taken, and the scope of evidence they have generated all make one thing clear: absenteeism does not have a simple aetiology (Johns, 1997).

Absenteeism has been defined in different ways. Some of the broadest definitions have described absence of labour, from a business perspective, as behaviour that represents the "non attendance when an employee is scheduled to work" (Price & Mueller, 1986, p17) or "non-attendance of employees for scheduled work when they are expected to attend" (Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989, p3). Therefore, non-attendance due to annual and other approved leave has not generally been viewed as absenteeism (Mueller, Wakefield, Price, Curry, & McCloskey, 1987).

Voluntary and involuntary absences are usually differentiated, so that when employees do not intentionally create the conditions that produce the absence (e.g illness), then this has typically been considered as involuntary absenteeism (Mueller *et al.,* 1987).

Absenteeism models

Employee absenteeism is a costly problem (Mowday *et al.,* 1982 and Porter & Steers, 1973) that has attracted the attention of managers and researchers over time. The literature is well represented by research trying to ascertain why employees are absent from the workplace. Whilst job dissatisfaction has been acknowledged as a cause of absenteeism, (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg *et al.,* 1957; Vroom, 1964 and Porter & Steers, 1973) there are additional factors, which also contribute to absenteeism, that should be considered.

For instance, Nicholson (1977) proposed three models of absenteeism: (a) Pain avoidance, in which absence was characterised as a flight from situations that are negative at work; (b) Adjustment and Maladjustment, in which absence was considered as an outcome of socialisation at work and other processes at work; and (c) Decision-Making, in which absences were believed to be the result of a rational decision directed toward obtaining important goals.

One of the most commonly mentioned models in the literature concerned that of the Steers & Rhodes process model, which was developed in 1978 (cited in Rhodes & Steers, 1990). They purported that an employee's attendance was directly determined by the employee's motivation to work. Thus, this model proposed that if an employee were motivated to attend, absence would be relatively low. According to this model, motivation was directly influenced by pressures to attend, stemming from economic conditions, incentives and reward systems, work-group norms, the employee's personal work ethic and their commitment to the organisation. Employee motivation was also believed to be the direct result of job satisfaction, which itself was largely determined by the job situation, such as the scope of the job, role stress, co-worker relations and opportunities for advancement and leadership style. Furthermore, the association

between the job situation and job satisfaction was purported to depend upon the employee's values and job expectations.

Johns (1997) undertook an extensive review of the different models which applied to absenteeism, and summarised them as follows: (a) process and decision models, which attempted to identify and order the sequence of variables that caused absence; (b) the withdrawal model, which explained absence as being the result of work conditions (namely, job satisfaction and organisational commitment) that were perceived as aversive; (c) demographic models, which examined the correlations between various demographic variables (namely, age, tenure and gender) and absenteeism; (d) the medical model, which explained absenteeism as being a function of medical causes (namely, smoking, drinking, psychological disorder and pain); (e) the stress model, which explained absence as being an escape from negative stress; (f) social and cultural models, which went beyond individual differences by explaining absence as being the result of social influences (namely, between-unit differences, norms and other social mechanisms, and cross-level and multi-level effects); (g) the conflict model, which viewed absenteeism as being a function of conflict between employers and employees; (h) the deviance model, which viewed absence as deviant because of its negative consequences for organisational effectiveness and its violation of legal or psychological contracts, and finally (i) the economic model, which viewed absenteeism and attendance as a problem of labour supply.

Predictors of absenteeism: Demographics

Historically, there has been recognition that certain characteristics predicted absence-taking behaviours (Garrison & Muchinsky, 1977). Nicholson, Brown & Chadwick-Jones (1977) reviewed 28 published studies of absence in relation to age, which provided evidence to suggest that less absenteeism occurred amongst older workers compared with younger workers. The study delineated between unavoidable (involuntary) and avoidable (voluntary) type absences. It showed a negative relationship between avoidable (voluntary) absence and age primarily for men, indicating that older males took fewer voluntary absences than younger males. The study found no relationship between age and unavoidable (involuntary) absences for women, however, it found a trend for men of a

decreased frequency of absence as age increased, with an increased duration of absences when they occurred. The study found a greater relationship between age and absence for men than for women (Nicholson *et al.*, 1977).

Age and tenure's relationship to absenteeism has been studied by a number of researchers, resulting in conflicting findings (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982). For example, Nicholson *et al.* (1977) described a lack of sufficient evidence to establish a significant relationship between age or tenure of job and absenteeism. However, they did support the notion that the sum of absences for all causes was less for older workers than for younger workers. They attributed the conflicting findings regarding the relationship of age or tenure with absenteeism, found in the literature, to the lack of an adequate review of the evidence, and little attempt by researchers to appreciate alternate causes of absences (such as those due to health status measures).

In Hackett's (1990) meta-analytical review, age/absence relationships were shown to decline when he controlled for tenure. Voluntary absence was found to have a negative weighted mean correlation with respect to age for absence occurrences of 3 days or less. Hackett reported a correlation of r = -.23, SD = .17 for age and absences of 3 days or less with tenure partialed-out, and a correlation of r = .15, SD = .18 for age and total occurrences of absence with tenure partialed-out. No relationships were found for involuntary absences.

The most influential framework regarding demographic models has been developed by Steers & Rhodes (1978, 1984), whereby they implied that demographic characteristics (personal factors, family characteristics) indirectly influenced absenteeism through sets of medium term variables (such as expectation and job satisfaction) and short term constructs (attendance motivation and ability to attend). Additionally an employee's short-term motivation and ability to attend work were the direct precursors of attendance (Harrison & Martocchio, 1998).

In Marcus & Smith's (1985) sociological model of absenteeism, demographic variables (such as occupation and industry) were used as markers for social process, namely demographic characteristics served as proxies for distal events.

Age and sex appeared to be the most widely studied demographics with respect to the origins of absenteeism. Martocchio (1989) demonstrated a relatively strong relationship between age and absence frequency for men: r = -.27, but not for women: r = -.03. In addition, he found that the age/absenteeism relationship was found to be weaker in correlation when examining physically demanding jobs. Hackett (1989) found that females were more likely to be absent from work than males. Farrell & Stamm's (1988) meta-analysis demonstrated that women tended to be absent more frequently, but for shorter durations than men. Whilst the corrected effect sizes were small (r = .11), most of the aggregation periods were not long enough to be fully compatible with the long-term variance in gender. Evans & Steptoe (2002) found that females tended to be absent more frequently for psychological reasons (such as anxiety), whilst males took fewer absences. However, they tended to be absent for "work-related hassles".

Additional research has demonstrated a curvilinear relationship between age and absence, with younger workers being absent more frequently for shorter periods, and older workers being absent less frequently but for longer periods of time (VandenHeuvel & Wooden, 1995).

Klein's (1986) study found that absence rates by sex (across all ages) were approximately 3.7% for men and 6.3% for women. The rates for males were highest amongst the 16-19 year old age range, with the lowest rates seen in the 55-year and above range, where 3.0% absence rates were seen. The rate for women remained high throughout most age ranges, beginning with the 16-19 year old age group at 7.4% and the 55-year and above group at 6.8%. Martocchio (1989) proposed that older workers exhibited lower absence compared with their younger counterparts because of a better employee-organisational fit, which emerged over time.

Measurement of absenteeism

Mowday *et al.* (1982) found that, "if we are to understand the nature of employee absenteeism in various organizations, we must first understand how (or whether) it is measured in empirical studies" (p80). Many studies have subdivided absences into either voluntary and involuntary type categories (Steers & Rhodes,

1978; Chadwick-Jones *et al.,* 1982 and Mowday *et al.,* 1982). Chadwick-Jones, Brown, & Nicholson (1973) made a distinction between A-type absence (involuntary) and B-type absence (voluntary) in their study of empirical trends for female employees. They defined A-type absences (involuntary) as those resulting from disabling illness, bereavement, jury duty or serious illness of a family member, and B-type absences (voluntary) as those absences that were based on individual choices concerning whether or not to attend.

Chadwick-Jones *et al.* (1982) classified absences as either voluntary or involuntary, and used a total frequency index. Voluntary absences were defined as absences of 1-2 days duration, whereas involuntary absences represented a period of 3 days or more. Herman's (1973) study suggested that even if a person was motivated to attend, circumstances might make attendance impossible. Steers & Rhodes (1978) classified three limitations of attendance that were unavoidable. These were illness and accidents, family responsibilities, and transportation problems.

Mowday *et al.* (1982) suggested that the most useful approach when examining absence was from a systematic viewpoint, so as to obtain the whole picture of the behaviours involved, and how the behaviours were interrelated. Huse & Taylor's (1962) research listed the following strategies for measuring absences:

1. Absence frequency- total number of times absent.
2. Absence severity – total number of days absent.
3. Attitudinal absence – frequency of 1day absences.
4. Medical absence – frequency of absences of 3 days or longer.

Additionally, Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, Brown, & Sheppard (1971) described measures that included the following:

1. Absence frequency.
2. Attitudinal absence.
3. Other reasons - number of days lost in a week for any reason other than the following:
    a. Holidays.

b. Rest days.
c. Certified sickness.

4. Worst day - difference score between number of individuals absent on any week's "best" or "worst" days.
5. Time Lost – number of days lost in a week for any reason other than leave.
6. Lateness – number of instances of tardiness in any week.
7. Blue Monday –number of individuals absent on Monday minus number of individuals absent on a Friday of any week.

Harrison & Martocchio (1998) proposed two considerations regarding the measurement of absenteeism. Firstly, the authors suggested that it would be useful to measure the purported causes before absenteeism occurred, utilising a lag period that was relevant to the causes of absenteeism. Secondly, it would be useful to clearly define the timing of absence measurements, and the lengths of absence aggregation periods. Hulin, (1991) indicated support for this notion, and highlighted the need for researchers to define a time-based framework when making meaningful absenteeism aggregation decisions. A large number of measures have been used in the attempt to meaningfully quantify absence in the workplace. This large variance in measures has contributed, in part, to many of the conflicting findings seen in the literature regarding absenteeism.

Work withdrawal: Job situation

Hill & Trist (1953) developed a withdrawal model that suggested absence was a form of withdrawal from stressors in the workplace. They further posited that employees who experienced workplace conflict often expressed this through withdrawal via turnover, accidents and other absences. According to Hill & Trist (1953, 1955), the mechanism by which employees expressed their conflict depended on how long the individual had been employed, and the degree of the employee's internalisation of the norms regarding the types of absences tolerated by the organisation.

Past work in motivation has focussed on cognitive processes that might explain employee attitudes and behaviour. Examples include Patchen's (1960) theory, which argued the existence of a relationship between absenteeism and an

employee's perception of pay fairness. Adams (1963) proposed that absence might be a means of dealing with inequality, in which an employee's failure to go to work was a motivated effort to increase a sense of fairness and equality between the employee and the employer. Thus, when workers perceived inequity to be at their own disadvantage, they expressed more negative attitudes and behaved in a fashion opposed to the organisation.

Another model of absenteeism as proposed by Hirschman (1970), was called "Exit, Voice and Loyalty". This title illustrated what people may do when they took action regarding absenteeism. "Exit", for example, referred to people who were ready to leave the organisation and who were actively looking for an alternative job. "Voice", represented those people who expressed their feelings and needs to their employers, and sought help and support from within the organisation. "Loyalty", referred to those people who defended and supported the organisation, and were concerned about the organisational reputation within and outside the workplace.

Gibson (1966) developed a model that utilised the concept of an informal contract between an employee and their organisation. He primarily studied short absences that did not meet formal organisation policies that legitimised absences. Gibson suggested that an individual's belief system influenced his or her perceptions concerning the desirability or aversiveness of various objects and events. He proposed that the individual's belief-value system was either impeded or assisted, by the intensity and direction of identification with the workplace, or space outside the work area. If an individual's core identification were weak or negative toward the workplace, they would more easily legitimise their absence to themselves. Researchers have noted that a correlation exists between organisational size and increased absenteeism. This could be explained by a greater latitude regarding absenteeism from work, which may be afforded to employees in larger organisations (Gibson, 1966 and Porter & Steers, 1973). Thus, when employees experienced conflict at work, or when job conditions changed to those that were deemed unfavourable by workers, employees renegotiated their behaviours in response to those changes.

Decision-making: Pressure and motivation to attend

Many models concerning absenteeism have encompassed motivational processes, whereby an individual makes choices based on valued outcomes. Namely, they have utilised rational decision and expectancy-valence theories to explain behaviour (Vroom, 1964; Adams, 1965; Porter & Lawler, 1968; Gowler, 1969 and Rhodes & Steers, 1990). The rational decision model proposed by Gowler (1969), described a model of labour supply to an organisation. This decision model proposed that employee absences were a method used by employees to restore the balance of "effort" to "reward", which was upset by variations in overtime. Adams (1965) used equity theory and viewed absence as a means to restore equity when an employee perceived a difference in parity, comparing their own outcomes (as compared with the inputs) with that of their colleagues. Partial withdrawal, such as absence, was a means of restoring equity by reducing job input.

Attendance and absence have also been related to processes described in expectancy theory. Researchers have proposed that employee absence behaviour is influenced by a rational subjective assessment of the costs and the benefits, coupled with the absence and it's alternative (Rhodes & Steers, 1990). Lawler & Porter (1967) proposed a rational decision model that was based on economic and sociological theory, as well as the expectancy-valence model developed by Vroom (1964).

The expectancy theory developed by Vroom (1964) had three key cognitive components, namely valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. The theory assumed that individuals might hold preferences for outcomes. Vroom used the term valence to refer to the affective (emotional) orientation toward outcome. An outcome was considered to have positive valence if the individual preferred having the outcome to not having the outcome. Instrumentality was the employee's probability belief that a performance outcome was linked to the attainment of another valued outcome. An example was attending work every day of the week, which would be perceived as being linked to the valued outcome of being scheduled first for available weekend overtime. Expectancy referred to the strength of the individual's belief concerning whether a particular performance

outcome was possible based on performance effort. The theory stated that individuals exerted effort in order to achieve performance outcomes they believed were linked to rewarding outcomes, as long as they perceived that the effort would lead to performance, and that performance was linked to a rewarding outcome.

Another conceptual paradigm treated absenteeism as the avoidance (withdrawal) from a disliked work situation. Steers & Rhodes (1978) described job attitude as being central to absenteeism, whereby job satisfaction determined job related and organisational variables. They proposed that the job situation (scope, stress, co-worker relations) impacted upon an employee's job satisfaction which, in turn, affected their motivation to attend. Employee motivation may be modified by internal and external forces (including the physical ability to attend work), which could alter work attendance. Steers & Rhodes reformulated their theory in (1984), whereby they combined the job satisfaction concept with organisational control and group norms. They proposed that this medium term source of absenteeism variance was indirect, encapsulated and transmitted by short-term attendance motivation.

Absence has been described as the result of a daily choice process in both an economic (Chelius, 1981) and psychological (Harrison, 1995) context. Absence has been thought of as a work/ leisure trade-off, whereby employees maximised utility subject to budgetary restraints (Winkler, 1980), namely, employees took as many paid absence days as allowable or tolerated by employers.

Fichman's (1984) theory concerning choice of absence or attendance drew on a general premise of motivation: without constraints or penalty on time allocations (attendance), workers would act on their motives to either engage in work or leisure activity which may explain the timing of absence or attendance.

Harrison (1995) included a choice function in his theory of short-term absence, which encapsulated decision-making elements from social theories of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). When employees considered attending work, they deliberated the subjective expected attitude toward work, the subjective norms about attendance and perceived

controls over attendance. Additionally, they contemplated their feelings of moral obligation in their attendance intentions (was it the right thing to do?). A critical link, which researchers proposed should be addressed, regarded whether one's intentions to be absent for particular reasons translated into actual absences for the same reasons. Marticchio (1992) and Harrison (1995) suggested that absence intentions might be a reasonable predictor of actual absence behaviours in the short term. Darviri & Woods (2006) demonstrated that personality was a useful predictor as to whether individuals expressed an intention to be absent from work by choice.

In Steers & Rhodes (1978) model, which considered individual motivations, two major variables influenced absence; namely, employee motivation to attend and employee ability to attend. Attendance motivation was primarily shaped by various internal and external pressures to attend, and by job satisfaction. Their model also considered the differences between the frequency of one or two day voluntary absences and involuntary absences of three days or longer. Steers & Porter (1991) proposed a diagnostic model of employee attendance similar to that of Steers & Rhodes' (1978) model; however, with greater emphasis on four areas: absence culture, organisational practices, societal context, and perceived ability to attend.

Johns & Nicholson (1982) are amongst a group of researchers who have supported the idea that absence was an event that happened at the level of the individual. Other theorists have agreed, with support demonstrated by Vroom's (1964) valence-instrumentality-expectancy theory and Folger's (1986) referent cognitions theory. In these formations, workers were considered to be active thinkers who evaluated the antecedents and consequences of their actions (Steers & Porter, 1987). However, absenteeism may be more than simply a function of individual cognition, alternatively being influenced by work groups and cultural norms (Johns & Nicholson, 1982 and Nicholson & Johns, 1985).

Chadwick-Jones (1976) advanced a social exchange theory based on the idea that absenteeism was social, and not individual, in nature. This assumed an interdependency of workers with work groups, where relationships were controlled by the rules of the group. In this social context, the psychological

contract was not between the individual and the organisation, but between the individual and the work group or between the work group and management. Chadwick-Jones (1976) stated evidence which suggested that absence behaviour was a social phenomenon that defined norms and rules, whereby social modelling governed when absences were taken, on what type of occasions, the duration of those absences, and whether or not they were accepted by co-workers and sanctioned by management (Chadwick-Jones, 1976 and Chadwick-Jones *et al.*, 1982).

Chadwick-Jones *et al.* (1982) also proposed that absenteeism may be understood as being a group event phenomenon. The authors argued the applicability of social exchange theory to explain absence behaviour. From this perspective, expenses versus the benefits of work were weighed against one another when workers considered being absent. Additionally, informal rules within the organisation, along with accepted levels of absenteeism, also appeared to be important factors that must be considered when attempting to understand absenteeism. The results of a study by Mathieu & Kohler (1990) indicated that group-level absence rates influenced the individual's absence rates, and therefore group-level interventions may be effective when trying to control individual absence. However, they did not consider the influence that absence cultures or norms potentially could exert at the individual or group level.

Johns & Nicholson (1982) argued that rather than absence being a private behaviour, it was influenced by the social environment, forming an absence culture. Nicholson & Johns (1985) postulated that two factors shaped absence culture; namely, the values and beliefs of a larger society and, secondly, the set of beliefs that an organisation's membership shared. At the organisational level, the nature of absence cultures has varied widely (Martocchio 1994).

Employee values and job expectations

Johns & Nicholson (1982) suggested that workers may use absence as a mechanism of autonomy or control. For example, workers may partake of absences to control the time spent in work versus non-work activities. Much of the survey literature regarding absenteeism has described the use of actual absence

data instead of the use of self-reported (intended behaviours) records, the result of which has attracted widespread debate.

The issue regarding the use of self-reported versus objective measures was addressed by Harrison & Shaffer (1994) in a series of seven studies which investigated the properties of self-report absence measures and perceived norms of absenteeism. Regardless of type of attendance, time interval, type of estimate, or administration, individuals reported having roughly half the absenteeism of the perceived organisational absence norm, which was consistent with the self-serving bias hypothesis first proposed by Johns (1994a).

Furthermore, approximately 85% to 95% of respondents in Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) study reported themselves as being above the average with respect to their attendance records. The authors explained these findings by the supposition that employees under-reported absenteeism on the self-report indices and over-reported the organisational absence norms. Direct observations of absenteeism were highly correlated ($r = .69, p < .01$) with the self-report indices indicating that self-report measures had approximately 48% of the variance in common with direct observations. Additionally, regression analyses indicated that perceived norms uniquely explained only 10% of the variance observed in absence estimates ($p < .10$).

Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) study suggested several things. Firstly, the high degree of overlap seen between the self report and actual absence data provided the first evidence that self-report absenteeism estimates were a fair approximation of objective reports of absenteeism. However, the finding that self-reports were consistently lower than direct observations of absenteeism indirectly supported the theory of self-serving bias proposed by Johns (1994a).

Secondly, these findings suggested that organisational norms did not completely explain the variability observed in absenteeism. Other factors, such as self-serving biases, may play a greater role in explaining the variation in absence than did organisation norms. Thus, it was possible that self-serving biases mediated the relationship between organisational norms and absence reports, in that self-serving biases could be expected to be related to both organisational norms and to

reported absenteeism. From this perspective, if the norms of an organisation considered absenteeism deviant, there was a greater chance that the employee may participate in self-serving biases. In turn, an increase in self-serving biases may have contributed to employees underestimating their absence occurrences.

Farrell (1983) added an additional element to the concept of self serving bias, which he called "neglect". Neglect, referred to the processes used by individuals who damaged organisations from within by their use of passive aggressive behaviours such as being late for work, being absent, or increasing the error rate in their work.

Researchers have long suggested that enduring personality traits accounted for absenteeism's stability over time and across situations, and that personality moderated situational and attitudinal behaviours (Ferris, Bergin & Wayne, 1988). Harrison & Price (1993) coined the term 'absence-proneness' when considering an individual's disposition for absenteeism. Johns (1997) labelled this perspective as an individual's "deviance" approach. It has been proposed that employees with heightened levels of emotional instability, anxiety, low achievement orientation, aggression, impulsiveness, social insensitively and alienation were more prone to engage in deviant work behaviours such as absenteeism, (Porter & Steers, 1973 and Hogan & Hogan, 1989).

Ability to attend

The association between motivation and actual attendance was proposed to be moderated by the employee's ability to attend work, as influenced by external circumstances such as illnesses, accidents, family responsibilities and transportation problems (Mowday *et al.,* 1982). Steers & Rhodes (1978) proposed that an employee's ability to attend may also be influenced by the employee's personal characteristics, such as education, age, sex and family size.

Additionally, Brooke's (1986) model predicted that additional direct inputs such as health (e.g. alcohol use) and related organisational constructs (permissiveness) had an impact on absenteeism. McFarlin (2002) also found a significant relationship between alcohol abuse and workplace absence. Research has

proposed that stress and depression also take their toll on employees, and have an adverse impact on absence in the workplace (Martin, 2001). Smoking, substance abuse, depression, and lack of exercise have been proposed as being factors which contribute most to the long-term health-related origins of absenteeism. Bush & Wooden (1995) suggested that smokers tended to miss more work compared to those who have never smoked; additionally, this effect was observed to be greater for men compared with women.

Whilst many researchers have proposed that job dissatisfaction is the main factor that contributes to absenteeism behaviours, Huczynski & Fitzpatrick (1989) claimed that 60% of absences might be due to genuine illnesses and injuries. Barlow (1982) agreed that genuine illnesses constituted a significant proportion of non-attendance in the workplace. Alternatively, Dalton & Mesch (1991) found in their field-based research of nearly 1300 employees, that approximately 60% of turnover (absenteeism) may be avoidable, and that this figure represented those employees who called in sick whilst not actually ill. Additionally, it was found that approximately 25% of the employees accounted for virtually all of the unavoidable absenteeism, and that absenteeism policy provisions were a far better predictor of absenteeism levels compared with any individual or attitudinal factor (singly or in combination).

Organisations which did not require that an employee establish proof of illness (doctor's certification), had higher rates of employee absenteeism, and organisations that did not reimburse earned but unused sick leave had higher rates of absenteeism (Dalton & Perry, 1981). Interestingly, a recent study conducted by Williams & Milbank (2004) cited a 2002 study by HALLIS (a human resource consulting company), which concluded that even though employees reported that they were absent from work due to genuine illnesses, an average of three days a year were taken for 'fake illnesses'.

Herman (1973) suggested that employee absenteeism was a multidimensional problem, with factors such as family responsibilities, poor health, job attitudes and situational constraints being at least partially responsible for employees failing to attend work. Britt (2002) and Mitchell (2000) agreed that family issues contributed significantly toward the reasons that employees took time off work.

Traditionally, family responsibilities such as caring for sick children have tended to be assigned to women and, as such, may explain the higher rates of absenteeism seen with women (Johns, 1978). For males, on the other hand, unavoidable absenteeism apparently increased with age (presumably because of health reasons), whereas avoidable absenteeism did not show this age relationship (Martin, 1971 and Nicholson *et al.*, 1977).

Transportation was another common factor contributing to the inability to attend work. Factors associated with transportation difficulties included the physical distance travelled to go to work (Martin, 1971), travel time to and from work (Knox, 1961), and weather conditions which may impede traffic (Smith, 1977). On the other hand, Nicholson & Goodge (1976) found no relationship between travel distance or availability of public transportation, and absence. Interestingly, those employees who were left to cover the work for their absent colleagues as a result of the above issues, experienced lower morale overall (Britt, 2002).

Job satisfaction

Although there are many reasons for absenteeism as discussed in this chapter, the focus for the current research concerned the relationship between absenteeism and employee attitude (i.e. low morale). In general, employees who were less satisfied with their jobs were more likely to be absent from work (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg *et al.,* 1957; Vroom, 1964 and Porter & Steers, 1973). In other words, the more satisfied an employee was, the less likely the individual would be absent or resign from the organisation (Porter & Steers, 1973).

Many researchers have postulated that job dissatisfaction is a primary cause of absenteeism. Early research by Kornhauser & Sharp (1932), in which they investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism in women factory workers, found a negative relationship between attitude to work and absenteeism. However, a more recent meta-analysis has found only mild correlations (in the order of r = .20 to .25) between job satisfaction and absence (Johns, 1997). Some researchers have therefore cautioned that the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism was likely to be indirect and/ or tenuous (Nicholson, Brown & Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Steers & Rhodes, 1978 and

Huczynski & Fitzpatrick, 1989). For example, Hackett & Guion (1985) found that when they combined all measures of satisfaction and all measures of absence, the mean correlation between absence and attitude was r = -.09, SD = .13. Steers & Porter's (1991) meta-analysis also found less than 4% of the variation in absence measurement could be attributed to overall job satisfaction.

Terbog, Lee, Smith, Davis & Turbin (1982) and Hackett & Guion (1985) found that statistical artefacts resulting from methodological, statistical or measurement biases explained some of the variations in correlations seen between absence and satisfaction. Sources of statistical error included small sample sizes, range restrictions, differences in factor structure and criterion contamination (Hackett & Guion, 1985).

Steers & Rhodes (1978) assigned job attitudes a central place in their model, predicting that job-related and organisational variables influenced absenteeism through job satisfaction. Research by Hulin *et al.* (1985) and Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), in which employee absence was studied amongst other withdrawal behaviours, found that all elements (unfavourable behaviours, absence, lateness, turnover intentions and retirement intentions) of the behavioural families that comprised their job and work withdrawal constructs, could be thought of as forms of disengagement from work. Additionally, all of the withdrawal behaviours were presumed to be expressions of, or reactions to, job dissatisfaction. A later study by Tharenou (1993), demonstrated a reciprocal relationship between satisfaction and absenteeism. In other words, she found that increased absenteeism led to a subsequent reduction in job satisfaction.

Staw & Oldham (1978) postulated that a certain degree of absenteeism might be beneficial for companies, because it allowed dissatisfied employees the ability to release their stress and come back to work feeling more encouraged. Brooke & Price (1989) also found that certain levels of absenteeism were tolerated by organisations, and that this might even be viewed as a positive outcome. Despite the views which considered that absenteeism was not entirely unfavourable, organisations still needed to consider that absenteeism could result in understaffing, disruption of schedules and overall increased manpower costs (Morgan & Herman, 1976). Britt (2002) proposed that organisations should be

prepared to accept that absenteeism by its employees may have an effect on their co-workers (who were left to cover the workload for them), resulting in lower morale in the attending staff.

Relationships between absenteeism and other withdrawal behaviours

Early studies in the 1950's considered the relationship between absenteeism and turnover, and proposed three schools of thought. Namely, there was either a continuum between absence and turnover (Herzberg *et al.*, 1957), that absenteeism was seen as an alternative to turnover (Hill & Trist, 1953), or that no relationship existed between absence and turnover (March & Simon, 1958).

During the 1970's and 1980's, the concept of withdrawal constructs began to be formulated. Two schools of thought developed, the first of which considered that job attitudes underlaid a spectrum of withdrawal or adaptive behaviours. Thus it was proposed that absenteeism and turnover were different manifestations of the same withdrawal construct, and as such examined the behaviours together (Beehr & Gupta, 1978; Gupta & Jenkins, 1982; Rosse & Hulin, 1985 and Rosse, 1988). The second school considered an opposing view, namely that each of the behaviours was unique, and suggested that they should be examined individually (Price, 1977 and Price & Mueller 1981).

Farrell & Stamm (1988), having considered the research of others as well as the results of their own meta-analyses concluded, "individualistic theories (of absenteeism), especially those emphasizing age, sex, and job satisfaction do not seem promising" (p222). Mobley (1982) suggested that the relationships concerning the above variables and turnover were also modest. Dalton & Todor (1993) stated that much of the research concerning these areas has been implicitly, if not explicitly, designed to reduce the amount of employee turnover and absenteeism in the workplace. Whilst much of the research has been well designed and tested, some observers have been frustrated with the lack of consistency and robustness concerning many of these relationships. Johns & Nicholson (1982) suggested that much of the research regarding the area of absenteeism "reveals a rather depressing state of affairs...In short; a heavy investment of research effort on absenteeism has failed to generate significant

dividends, whether one's criterion is the prediction, explanation, or control of absence" (Johns & Nicholson, 1982, p128).

Others have noted that much of the research regarding the study of absenteeism "is not designed to be very informative" (Fichman, 1984, p2). Mowday *et al.* (1982) described absenteeism research as a "veritable constellation of diverse variables" (p233). Additionally, Fitzgibbons (1992) questioned why, after some thirty years of extensive research in these areas, "our knowledge base about this ostensibly important organizational behavior is so superficial" (pp79-80). Dalton and Enz (1987) suggested that in many cases such research did not inform practice. They argued that factors which have been reported to lead to employee absenteeism, were of little, if any, practical value to the manager.

Whilst a number of previous researchers have lamented the fact that research into absenteeism had continued unabated, despite what seemed an overwhelming amount of literature, the lack of direct comparability of many studies due to variations in statistical analyses, the measures and scales used and the use of terminology made necessary the requirement for revisions and/or further research.

Whereas some researchers have suggested that absence and tardiness were unrelated (Rosse, 1988), or even negatively associated (Nicholson & Goodge, 1976), the weight of the empirical evidence suggested that at the very least, a moderately positive association should be expected (Clegg, 1983; Leigh & Lust, 1988; Rosse, 1988 and Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). The combined findings from the meta-analyses by Koslowsky *et al.* (1997), which focused on lateness correlations with both absence and turnover, and Mitra, Jenkins, & Gupta (1992), which focused on the absence-turnover association, provided strong support for a temporal sequence, or progression model, among lateness, absence and turnover. As these studies yielded a lateness-absence correlation (.40) and an absence-turnover correlation (.33) greater than the lateness-turnover (.27) correlation, Koslowsky *et al.* (1997) argued that the progression withdrawal approach provided a reasonable explanation for such a pattern of relationships. Accordingly, lateness was perceived as a moderate withdrawal response, which was followed by absence, and terminated in turnover, the most extreme expression of withdrawal. Although Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) felt that

analysing individual measures was still advantageous, Hanisch *et al.* (1998) and Hulin (1991) argued for aggregate measures as being more appropriate and more likely to produce higher associations.

Transferring within, and exiting the organisation

Interest in explaining employee turnover has been a major concern for researchers over time (March & Simon, 1958; Martin, 1971; Porter & Steers, 1973 and Bluedorn, 1982a). Price (1977) succinctly defined turnover as "the degree of movement across the membership boundary of a social system" (p3). Further, employee turnover has been classified as being either voluntary or involuntary in nature. Examples of involuntary turnover included such situations as when a person's employment was terminated, or they retired at an age specified by the organisation or legislation (Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991). It has been suggested that approximately half of all employee turnovers were due to alternative influences other than organisational control (Dalton *et al.,* 1981). Abelson (1987) reported a study in which some 35 percent of employee separations were judged to be unavoidable. Spousal transfers, leaving to return to school, and employee health, were some categories in which intervention by the organisation was unlikely to reduce turnover. Dalton *et al.* (1982) argued that:

"Some portion of employee turnover is unavoidable. This may be somewhat shortsighted. In theory, with the obvious exception of employee death, no turnover is unavoidable" (p119).

However, as a practical matter, the categories described (above) are essentially unavoidable. As Dalton & Todor (1979, noted, "it may be far less expensive to cope with turnover than to prevent it" (p226).

One could argue that voluntary turnover is the opposite of the above definitions. This could then be seen as an employee's choice. Others may decide to leave because they are dissatisfied in some way with their current position or colleagues, or because a spouse was relocating, returning to university or had a child, for example. Therefore, some voluntary turnover may be beyond an organisation's control, while some may be preventable if organisations better understood their origins. The focus of the current research is on voluntary

turnover, or turnover initiated by the individual as this reflects intent to withdraw labour.

Mitra *et al.* (1992) reminded us "absenteeism and turnover are two of the most popular outcomes studied in organizational research" (p879). As such, a considerable number of literature reviews have systematically summarised much of this work (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Muchinsky, 1977; Bluedorn, 1982a, 1982b; Chadwick-Jones *et al.*, 1982; Mobley, 1982; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Goodman & Atkin, 1984; Hackett & Guion, 1985; Scott & Taylor, 1985; Durand, 1986; McEvoy & Casio, 1987; Farrell & Stamm, 1988; Rhodes & Steers, 1990; Bycio, 1992; Fitzgibbons, 1992 and Mitra *et al.*, 1992).

Koslowsky (2000) stated that "turnover - an employee leaving one's job and going to work somewhere else - is difficult to hide" (p391) when compared to less extreme withdrawal behaviours, such as "minor behaviours, lateness and absenteeism" (p391). A progression approach that viewed lateness, absence and turnover as a continuum from mild through to severe withdrawal behaviours has been proposed (Herzberg *et al.*, 1957) and has received some support in a meta-analysis (Koslowsky *et al.*, 1997). Nevertheless, the latter findings were also consistent with the assumption that these behaviours may very well occur simultaneously (Benson & Pond, 1987 and Wolpin, Burke, Krausz, & Freibach, 1988).

Bluedorn (1982) stated that withdrawal might be manifested through several types of behaviour. He described two basic models of withdrawal behaviour. One model specified a continuum of withdrawal forms. The other model described a process whereby the different forms acted as alternatives to one another, rather than as a progressive process. The withdrawal continuum concept described by Bluedorn (1982) postulated that individuals who were dissatisfied would first exhibit relatively minor forms of withdrawal, eventually progressing to moderate and ultimately very serious forms. Quitting was considered the most serious of the ordinary withdrawal forms. The alternative forms model suggested that behaviours such as quitting, absenteeism and sabotage did not form a progression process leading to increasingly serious withdrawal forms. Instead, these behaviours were regarded as alternatives to one another. When one form of

behaviour (e.g. quitting) was difficult or impossible to achieve, alternatives (e.g. absenteeism, reduced effort) occurred instead (Price, 1977).

Much of the literature has described conventional withdrawal behaviours in terms of absenteeism and turnover in organisations. Organisational withdrawals 'acts' have been described as being important to basic and applied research, as reflections of employees' underlying general work attitudes and as interrelated behavioural responses (Hulin, 1991). As Hanisch & Hulin (1991) pointed out, "individual acts of withdrawal (e.g. turnover, absenteeism) are highly visible, costly for most organisations, and some are potentially costly to the individuals enacting the behaviours (p111)." To an unfortunate degree, turnover, absence and lateness withdrawal behaviours, studied in isolation, have been the primary focus of many withdrawal research investigators (Hulin, 1991). Porter & Steers (1973) concluded the following, "Much more emphasis should be placed in the future on the psychology of the withdrawal process, ...our understanding of the manner in which the actual decision is made, is far from complete" (p173).

Considerable evidence has demonstrated that across a wide variety of occupational groups, the best predictor of actual turnover was turnover (quit) intention. Since the next best predictors of turnover were organisational commitment and overall job satisfaction (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Lease, 1998 and Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000), research has tended to focus on discovering the list of individual, job, and organisational factors that predicted organisational commitment and job satisfaction. For example, Wright & Bonett (2007) demonstrated that well-being was found to moderate the relation between job satisfaction and job separation, in that job satisfaction was strongly and negatively related to turnover when well-being was low.

Research has demonstrated that there are a number of variables, which have been correlated with turnover and job attitudes, often in intuitive ways. Three meta-analyses (McEvoy & Cascio, 1982; Bycio, Hackett & Alvares, 1990 and Williams & Livingstone, 1994) have demonstrated a significant negative relationship between performance and turnover, indicating that low performers were more likely to leave organisations. More recent research has demonstrated that the relationship between organisational performance and turnover may be explained

by mediating factors such as efficiency (Morrow & McElroy, 2007). Additionally, low opportunity for promotion has been related to higher turnover, as has low work group cohesion and high work-family conflict (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). These variables were significantly related to low job satisfaction and low organisational commitment, which were, in turn, related to higher intentions to leave a job.

Researchers who have conducted their studies in human service organisations have looked at some factors that were of particular interest to them. For example, Hatton & Emerson (1998) found that public respect for the job that workers were doing influenced turnover rates. Baker & Baker (1999) concluded that perceived differences in ideology amongst workers affected their commitment to the organisation. In human service organisations, job stress or job burnout has also demonstrated to be a relative strong predictor of turnover (Barrett, Rigger, Flowers, Crimando & Bailey, 1997 and Barak, Nissly & Levin, 2001).

Research has generally examined only one or two antecedents at a time as they related to turnover. As a result, whilst research has discovered the importance that the influence of equitable rewards has on organisational commitment, or the importance of autonomy or control for professionals in determining job satisfaction, it has still proven difficult to predict actual turnover with much certainty. In fact, a close look at the empirical findings of many studies has revealed that the accuracy with which one can predict voluntary turnover is actually quite low. As Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill (1999) pointed out, Hom and Griffeth's (1995) comprehensive meta-analysis demonstrated that the "proportion of variance shared by levels of satisfaction and turnover is 3.6 percent, and the proportion shared by intention to leave and actual leaving is 12 percent" (p113).

Organisational commitment is a factor that has been studied extensively with respect to turnover. Porter *et al.* (1974) described organisational commitment as the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, an organisation. Organisational commitment has consistently been shown to have a substantial negative relationship with turnover, both in empirical articles (Porter *et al.*, 1974 and Steers, 1977) and meta-analyses (Steers & Mowday, 1981 and Hom

& Griffeth, 1995). In Griffeth *et al.*'s (2000) meta-analysis, organisational commitment better predicted turnover (ρ1= -.23) than overall job satisfaction (ρ1= -.19).

Maertz & Griffeth (2004) defined 'affective forces' as a motivational tendency, involving the emotions aroused by the organisation and membership in it. They found that " affective forces are a big part of what is captured in the pervasive measures of affective organizational commitment" (p670). These forces would include elements by the authors as outlined below:

"Whenever an employee thinks about the organization an emotional response is possible. Such current and salient emotional responses comprise affective forces at a given point in time. The mechanism influencing turnover involves a hedonistic approach-avoidance response. We assume that people are generally hedonistic, seeking pleasure and avoiding pain. As a result, people tend to approach situations that make them feel good and avoided situations that make them feel bad" (p670).

As can be seen from the above quote, Maertz & Griffeth (2004) have indicated that there are a number of factors that have contributed to turnover. As they stated, these included seeking pleasure and avoiding pain.

Meyer & Allen (1991) found that when employees felt positively about their current organisation and enjoyed their membership with it, they wanted those pleasurable feelings to continue and thus felt motivated to continue their membership with the organisation. On the other hand, Rosse & Hulin (1985) proposed that a worker who felt negatively toward their organisation may want to avoid the psychological discomfort associated with working there.

Many studies have used Mowday *et al.*'s (1982) organisational commitment questionnaire (OCQ), which has generated debate amongst researchers who have argued that the strength of the organisational commitment to turnover relationships, as seen in the literature, may have related to the use of the OCQ and its use of items that involved quit decisions (Hom & Hulin, 1981). Hom and Griffeth (1991) argued that withdrawal cognitions consisted of three items: thinking of quitting, intent to search, and intent to quit. Griffeth *et al.'s* (2000) meta-analysis demonstrated that quit intentions of employees were one of the

most reliable predictors of turnover, with corrected correlations in the order of ($\rho 1 = .38$).

Leigh & Lust (1998) suggested that one possible explanation for the frequently observed association amongst behaviours was that they "result from the same problems" and it is "the intensity of the problems that determine the behaviour that the employee will engage in" (p80). Additionally, the authors argued that an increase in problems (e.g. more dissatisfaction) for employees, led to more extreme behaviours. Earlier, Rosse & Miller (1984) and Rosse & Hulin (1985) postulated a similar notion, namely that worker dissatisfaction was a trigger or antecedent, which led to the consideration of alternative behavioural responses. Of particular interest was Rosse & Hulin's (1985) concept of adaptive behaviour, which suggested that when an employee felt that a specific adaptive behaviour they were enacting did not reduce their negative affect about a workplace issue, they would try another 'adaptive strategy' until successful adjustment occurred, at which point, the progression to more severe forms of withdrawal would cease. Rosse & Hulin (1985) concluded that there was sufficient evidence to demonstrate that job attitudes underlaid a spectrum of withdrawal or adaptive behaviours.

The above claims by Rosse & Hulin (1985) were supported by the previous findings of Mobley (1977) in his 'model of the employee decision process', which purported that when an employee was deciding whether to stay or quit their job, one step would involve the behavioural intention to search for alternatives. Arguing from Mobley's' model, employees may look to transfer within the organisation, as an alternative to making the decision to quit entirely. Salomon (2002) for example, suggested that there may be a connection between dissatisfied workers and their intent to request a work-shift transfer. Internal transfers may be viewed as an alternative workplace option to avoid the current job situation. This may be a less obvious or visible behaviour (as opposed to exiting the organisation) to the employer.

Jackofsky & Peters (1983) intimated that internal movement within the organisation could be included under the broader heading of organisational turnover (i.e. quitting). However, Dalton & Todor (1987, 1993) argued that these behaviours were quite singular in nature. The current research aims to test these

past research assumptions by conducting a factor analysis to establish whether the behaviours of 'internal transfer' and 'exit' belong as a collective factor, or whether they are, in fact, separate from one another.

March & Simon (1958) suggested in their model of turnover, that the perceived possibility of intra-organisational transfers could reduce the perceived desirability of leaving an organisation altogether. Dalton & Todor (1987) postulated that the availability of an intra-organisational transfer option for an employee (as eluded to by March & Simon, 1958), might serve the same purpose as leaving the organisation. Thus, changing jobs (transferring) within organisations may resolve dissatisfaction with one's work as readily as changing organisations (quitting).

Dalton & Todor (1987) implied that although employees may seek alternative employment outside of their organisation (exit the organisation) to reduce unpleasant working circumstances, they may prefer to transfer within the organisation, if that option were available. They also noted that internal transfers within organisations may be beneficial to the employee, in that they may not lose their salary or fringe benefits, as opposed to quitting from the organisation entirely. Cvijetic (2000) also found that trainees identified permanency and leave entitlements as being favourable benefits of working in State government.

Although transfers have been shown to occur for a number of proactive reasons, such as career_growth (e.g. promotional opportunities), (Stilwell, Liden, Parsons & Deconinck, 1998) or a need for change, transfers may be a viable strategy for an employee dissatisfied with an immediate supervisor or current job duties (Dalton & Todor, 1987). Research has proposed that transferring jobs might contribute to greater employee satisfaction and commitment (Grusky, 1967; Pruden, 1973; Brett, 1982 and Veiga, 1981). Consequently, when the option of transferring was available to employees, it had the potential to reduce an employee's intention to leave the organisation altogether (Dalton & Todor, 1987).

Namely, the results of Dalton & Todor's (1987) study strongly suggested that individuals who wished to leave their current position (i.e. transfer) and were able to move within the organisation, were much less likely to leave the organisation entirely than those who wished to move, but could not. They further found that

individuals who were able to voluntarily transfer, had lower rates of turnover (quit) than those who did not request a transfer at all. In other words, individuals with the ability to withdraw from unpleasant working situations may have preferred to move within the organisation (transfer), rather than leave the organisation entirely (quit). Dalton & Todor (1987) further noted that this notion should generally be appealing to organisations, based on the rationale that internal mobility was arguably less dysfunctional to the organisation than turnover (quitting). Many of the costs associated with turnover (e.g. training, separation pay, replacement) were saved (Casio, 1982) when an employee chose to transfer, rather than quit their employment entirely.

Clark (1992) agreed that turnover was a behaviour that could be very expensive to the workforce. The term 'turnover' has appeared interchangeable with resignation or exit from the organisation. In any sense, turnover may reduce the profitability and predicability of organisational performance. Clark further noted, "If labour turnover gets out of control, planning is impossible and morale at all levels in the organisation is likely to be damaged" (p439). In an earlier study, Boudreau & Berger (1985a) also found that when employees voluntarily quit their employment, it generally resulted in a substantial negative impact on the organisation in question. Therefore, it would seem reasonable as argued by Dalton & Todor (1987), that turnover was reduced when the organisation provided a rather "generous employee-initiated transfer policy".

As previously mentioned, there are models of the turnover process which have related the possible relevance of internal transfers to turnover (exit). Mobley (1977) pioneered a comprehensive explanation for the psychological process underlying withdrawal. According to his formation of the withdrawal decision process, dissatisfaction led to thoughts about quitting. There were a number of possible mediating steps between dissatisfaction and actual quitting. Firstly, Mobley (1977) proposed that one of the consequences of dissatisfaction was to inspire thoughts of leaving (see boxes A, B and C in Figure 2.2). These thoughts, in turn, stimulated consideration of the expected utility of a job search and, of the costs of quitting (box D, in Figure 2.2). The next step entailed the behavioural intention to search for an alternative (box E, in Figure 2.2). The intention to search was then followed by an actual search (box F, in Figure 2.2). If alternatives

were available, evaluations of these alternatives were then initiated (box G, in Figure 2.2). The evaluation of alternatives was then followed by a comparison of the present job to the alternatives available (box H, in Figure 2.2). If the comparison favoured the alternatives, behavioural intention to quit may be found, followed by actual withdrawal (boxes I and J, in Figure 2.2). Mobley's turnover model indicated that alternative forms of employee movement might mitigate an employee's quit decision. A subsequent revision of this model included "internal alternatives" in the employee decision process to either quit or stay in the present job (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979) (see Figure 2.2 below).

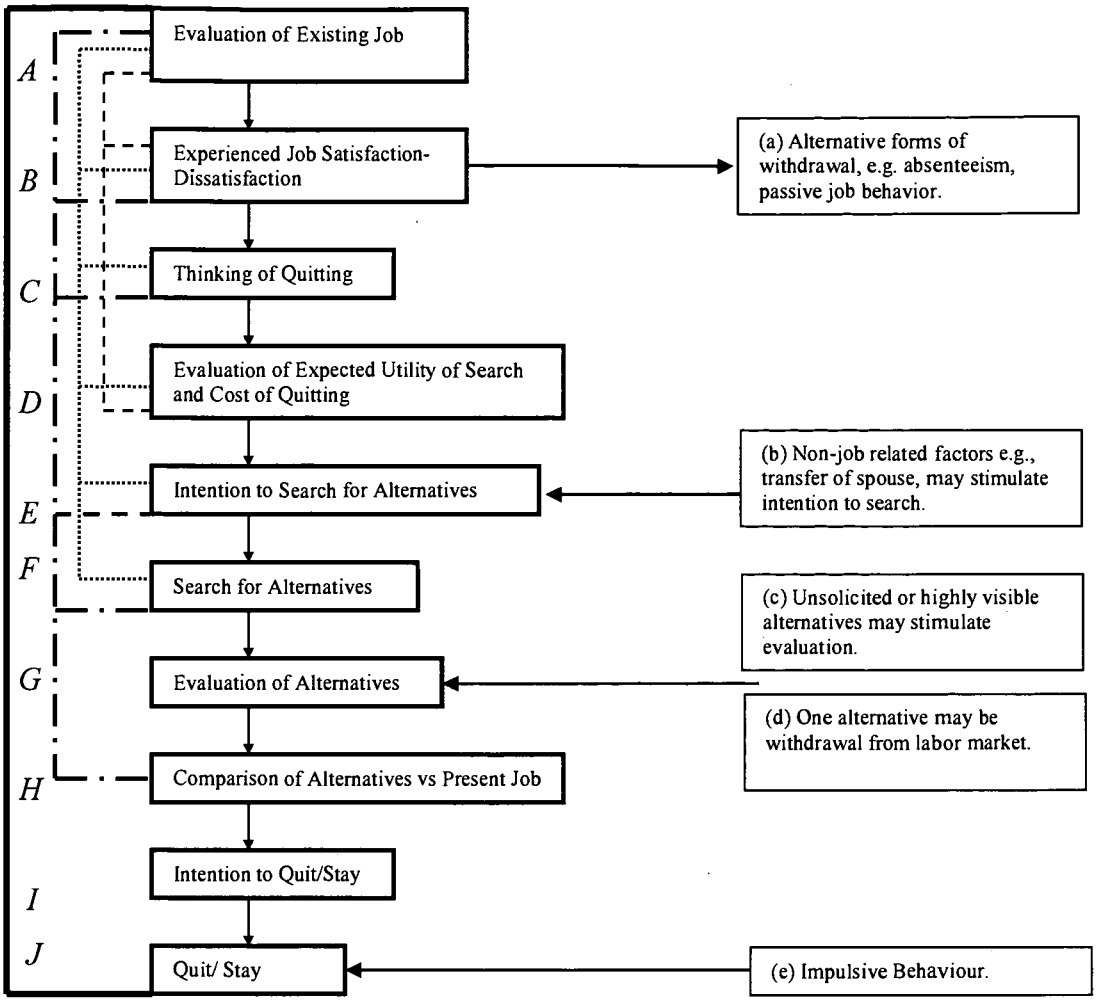

Figure 2.2. The employee turnover decision process. (Source: Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62, 237-240.)

Mobley (1977) described "The evaluation of the expected utility of search", as that which included an estimate of the chances of finding an alternative to working in the present job, some evaluation of the desirability of possible alternatives, and the costs of search (e.g. travel, lost work time, etc). "The evaluation of the cost of quitting" included such considerations as the loss of seniority, loss of vested benefits, and the like. Mobley (1977) postulated that this concept could be said to have incorporated March & Simon's (1958) 'perceived ease of movement' concept. If the costs of quitting were high and /or the expected utility of search were low, it was argued that the individual may re-evaluate the existing job (resulting in a change in job satisfaction), reduce their thinking of quitting, and /or engage in other forms of withdrawal behaviour. Mobley (1977) suggested that research regarding the determinants of the alternative forms of

withdrawal behaviours, and how the expression of those withdrawal behaviours changed as a function of time, or environment, was warranted.

A recent series of utility analyses on employee acquisition and separations also acknowledged the benefits of including employee-initiated transfers (Boudreau, 1983 and Boudreau & Berger, 1985a, 1985b). This is possibly why, for example; Baysinger & Mobley (1984) persuasively argued that, "an increased understanding of how both internal and external alternatives influence turnover will be increasingly important" (pp282-283). Maertz & Griffeth (2004, p 672) further stated that "alternative forces" involved an employee's beliefs about their ability to obtain a valued alternative to working at the current organisation. Employees facing membership decisions were likely to ask themselves, "Do I have any other job alternatives, how good are they, or what else will I do if I quit this job?"

March & Simon (1959), Hulin *et al.* (1985) and Steel (2002) found that people would normally want to avoid the employment uncertainty brought on by quitting without another job in hand. Gustafson (1982) stated that, "In addition to their merits, mobility programs (transfers) also may have a favourable long-term effect on resignations" (p168). In this sense, where choices for transfers existed, numbers of resignations would be decreased.

Early turnover studies focussed on the motives of individuals within organisations and their decisions to leave (Caplow & McGee, 1958; March & Simon, 1958; Flowers & Hughes, 1973; Steers, 1977 and McCain, O'Reilly & Pfeffer, 1983). For example, Smith (1979) found that the attributes of an organisation, the conditions of an individual's workplace, and the characteristics of external environments may explain individuals' turnover choices.

Subsequent studies suggested that organisational and structural variables may have an impact on work-related attitudes. Organisational theory has attempted to "observe, quantify, and explain regularities in responses of individuals and groups in organizational contexts" (Roberts *et al.*, 1978, p6). This theory has attempted to explain attitudes and behaviours within the organisation as individual responses to

the context in which individuals find themselves. The organisation itself provides the context, which is multi-layered and quite complex.

In organisational theory, the structure of an organisation can be separated into formal and informal layers. An analogy by Krackhardt & Hanson (1993) viewed the formal organisation of a company as being the skeleton, and the informal organisation as being the central nervous system. They described the informal system as the central controller, which drove the collective thought processes, actions and reactions. The informal network included intricate social connections, which were highly adaptive and could wield considerable power.

In a classic study of an organisation theory, Kanter (1997) examined both behaviours and attitudes in the context of an individual within an organisation. Kanter asserted that behaviour in organisations was a function of the structural characteristics of that organisation. She argued that structure shaped an individual's response, and in doing so the response reinforced the structure. One response was to leave the organisation.

Organisational theorists such as Bluedorn (1982a, 1982b) developed a model conceptualising organisational turnover, which built upon the Price (1977) voluntary separation process and included structural, economic, and social psychological variables. Bluedorn identified the nature of turnover as the "entire cycle of accessions and separations across organizational boundaries" (Bluedorn, (1982a, p100). This model specified a causal process, which began with five antecedents of job satisfaction: pay, participation in relationships, communication related to tasks, organisational communication and participation in decision-making. These antecedents came together to produce the measure of job satisfaction, which was built upon the individual's experience with the organisation. The organisational factors included technology, internal opportunity structures such as transfer and promotion opportunities, emergent structures and communication and conflict processes.

Bluedorn noted that there was not necessarily an ideal organisational reality for the individual, since much of experience is based upon attitude and perception. In addition, attitudes formed when the individual entered the organisation

(expectancies) may vary greatly from those attitudes held as time passes. Individuals would react affectively, cognitively and behaviourally according to their own definitions of organisational situations. Bluedorn theorised that there may be some direct paths from the organisational experience to satisfaction, but the primary impact should be through an interaction with the individual's experiences.

Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) studied midlevel administrators' perceptions of their work life, and the effect of this upon morale and intent to leave. Their findings indicated that perceptions of one's work life had a direct impact on morale, and that morale had a direct impact on an employee's intention to leave the institution. This finding was similar to Smart's (1990) research, whereby the impact of attitudes on behaviour was mediated by satisfaction. For example, according to Smart (1990) when administrators perceived high levels of career support, their morale tended to be higher, and they were less likely to intend to leave. Similarly, if they did not feel recognised for their contributions, their morale tended to be lower, and they were more likely to think seriously about leaving. In summary, Johnsrud (1996) concluded that when morale was high, turnover costs were lower; and that employees were more likely to leave when unhappy, or because the 'grass looked greener' elsewhere.

Job turnover research has often focused on the relationship between the intention to leave the organisation and the actual leaving (Manger & Eikeland, 1990). As Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) argued, actual turnover was more difficult to study because once organisational members had left, they were difficult to locate, and their response rates in surveys were often low. Previous studies have indicated that intent to stay or leave one's position has been found to be a good proxy indicator for actual leaving (Steers & Mowday, 1981 and Bluedorn, 1982a). Bluedorn's review of organisational turnover studies concluded that there was a significant positive relationship between leaving intentions and actual leaving behaviour. In fact, in 19 out of 20 studies, intent to leave was the stronger predictor of actual voluntary turnover. Lee & Mowday's (1987) findings indicated that a lack of job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation and job involvement may explain one's intention to leave.

Alternatively, some studies regarding job change have not shown a strong relationship between intention to leave and actual leaving. For example, an examination of university staff by Finkelstein (1984) suggested that only a small proportion of those staff members who were considering leaving the university actually left, even if non-academic opportunities were readily available.

The meta-analysis by Griffeth *et al.* (2000) found few demographic attributes meaningfully predicted turnover, the exceptions being company tenure and number of children. The researchers also found that there was no correlation between cognitive ability and turnover ($\rho 1 =. 01$), which contrasted with the past estimates by Hom & Griffeth's (1995) meta-analysis, which indicated that more intelligent employees were less prone to quit ($\rho 1 = -.09$).

Similarly, the updated meta-analysis (Griffeth *et al.,* 2000) revealed that women's quit rates were similar to that of the men's ($\rho 1= -.03$), when compared with previous estimates ($\rho 1= -.07$) (Hom & Griffeth, 1995). This result conformed to a recent labour economic finding which demonstrated that educated women actually resembled men in turnover rate and pattern (i.e. leaving to assume another job rather than to abandon the labour force – a route generally taken by less educated female leavers) Royalty (1998).

As Griffeth *et al.* (2000) pointed out, the findings regarding women's quit rates helped to dispel common stereotypes regarding their instability on the job (Royalty, 1998). This more recent estimate of the gender-turnover correlation indicated that the female turnover rate was similar to that of men, and that women were more likely to remain as they aged, compared with men. This may be explained by the fact that women traditionally have assumed the primary responsibility for household chores and childcare. Although childbearing or rearing has often prompted younger women to abandon paid employment (Royalty, 1998), these responsibilities (and their control over women's workforce participation) diminished as children grew up. Thus, Griffeth *et al.* (2000) suggested that future turnover research could examine family responsibilities, and their role in the female and male age-retention relationships.

Voluntary turnover research began by investigation of the impacts of job attitudes on employees' behaviours at work. In a 1955 review, which investigated job attitudes and how they were related to subsequent employee turnover, Brayfield & Crockett found that low job satisfaction was correlated with higher turnover. The relationship was not strongly significant, suggesting that there were many other factors contributing to turnover, than simply whether one was satisfied with one's job or not (Steers & Mowday, 1983). For example, demographic characteristics were shown to have an influence on turnover. Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth (1978) and Rhodes (1983) found that older workers were less likely to quit than younger workers.

Additionally, Porter & Steers (1973) argued that job dissatisfaction appeared to account for approximately 16 percent of the variance of turnover. Cotton & Tuttle (1986) found that overall job satisfaction with supervision was negatively associated with turnover. Job dissatisfaction has repeatedly been identified as an important reason as to why employees leave their jobs. Price & Mueller (1981) reported that job dissatisfaction had an indirect effect on turnover through its direct effect on formation on intent to leave. In other words, as job satisfaction increased, individuals demonstrated a greater intent to stay within an organisation (Price & Mueller, 1981).

Manger & Eikeland (1990) demonstrated in their study of university staff that general job satisfaction and collegial relations strongly predicted employee intention to leave the organisation (university). Their study established that staff that found their work less intrinsically satisfying more often intended to leave their institution. The salary or the economical situation did not influence intention to leave or stay; rather it was the relationships between colleagues that constituted the clearest reasons to leave. The results were found to be the same regardless of the age, faculty (Social Sciences, Arts, Medicine, Law, Science, Dentistry, or Psychology) or job role (Professor or Lecturer). Job dissatisfaction has been shown to be a factor, which influenced morale. Low morale may explain the variance in turnover (see Section Four, Linking Job Satisfaction And Morale Theory With Withdrawal Behaviour).

March and Simon (1958) moved beyond looking at simple one-to-one relationships between job attitudes and single behaviours, and examined the state of theories concerning the structure of organisations and how persons working in organisations behaved. They proposed that a person's decision to participate in an organisation was the result of a complicated rational process. They concluded that the desire to leave an organisation was a result of both an individual's satisfaction with their job, and their perception of alternatives for creating more satisfaction within the organisation.

Further, they saw satisfaction as a product of (1) the fit between a person's self image and the job's characteristics, (2) the predictability of the work environment, and (3) the compatibility of work requirements with those of other roles that a person occupied. The dissatisfied individual might seek the option within the organisation for a transfer to another more attractive position, or they might wish to leave.

March and Simon (1958) proposed that before a person could actually leave, they had to find a viable alternative to their current position. This was more likely (1) in good economic times, (2) when other organisations represented "visible" alternatives to the employee's present job, and (3) when the person's own characteristics made them more attractive to another organisation. Additionally, there were several different factors, which affected an individual's decision to stay or leave an organisation. These included the personal characteristics of the individual, the job itself, the person's non-work life, relationships with others in the organisation, the reward and decision-making systems in the organisation, the external economic environment and the labour market.

March and Simon's model of turnover formed a primary platform for future research, which sought to elucidate the parameters that led to job satisfaction and to turnover. There are hundreds of articles that have attempted to demonstrate the relationships between what seemed to be an ever-increasing number of variables under consideration.

As a summary of this section, a simplified overview of key variables in voluntary turnover was constructed (see Figure 2.3). This demonstrated the various

antecedents to turnover and the relationships that can be found between them. This figure reflected, in a simple manner, the conclusions of several reviews of the turnover literature sighted in this current research, notably the reviews by Brayfield & Crockett (1955), March & Simon (1958), Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth (1978), Price & Mueller (1981), Bluedorn (1982a), McEvoy & Cascio (1982), Baysinger & Mobley (1984), Boudreau & Berger (1985), Lee & Mowday (1987), Bycio, Hackett & Alvares (1990), Steers & Rhodes (1990), Dalton & Todor (1993), Williams & Livingstone (1994), Hom & Griffeth (1995), Royalty (1998), Griffeth *et al.* (2000) and Maertz *et al.* (2004).

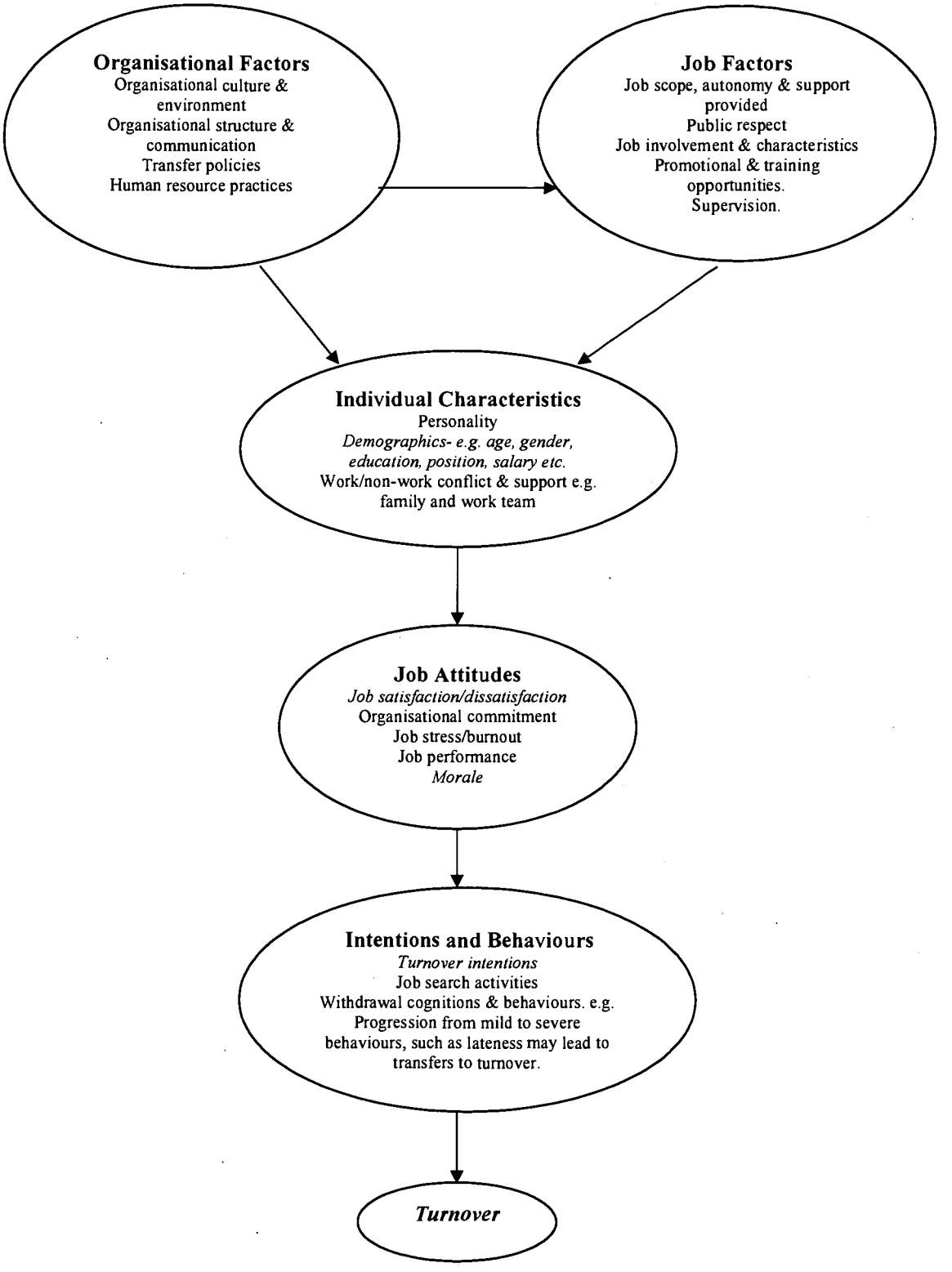

Figure 2.3. A simplified overview of the key variables in voluntary turnover

The current research included an overview of voluntary turnover that has been found in the reviewed literature, as presented in Figure 2.3. The top left hand corner of the figure represented the grouping of 'Organisational Factors'.

These variables have been shown to influence the category of 'Job Factors', as in the upper right hand corner. Both organisational and job factors have impacted on 'Individual Characteristics', which then have demonstrated a modulating effect on 'Job Attitudes'. Job attitudes influenced the 'Intentions and Behaviours' of employees, which terminated in 'Turnover' of staff.

In considering this overview, interesting links develop regarding the demographics, morale, job satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and behavioural intention of employees. These links (highlighted in italics) suggest the line of approach taken for this current research.

SECTION TWO: INTENT VERSUS ACTUAL BEHAVIOUR

As was noted from the previous section and throughout this chapter, the current research was interested in cognitive activities (assessment of future behaviour, or intent) rather than actual behaviour. This current study aims to examine the relationship between intention and behaviours (withdrawal of labour constructs: minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) under the condition of low morale (attitude).

Soderlund & Ohman (2005) stated that the main reason for investigating individual's intention was that it "serves as a unique human construct, in the sense that it allows us to make contact with a future that is yet to materialize" (p181). They believed that researchers needed to pay careful attention to how intentions were conceptualised, as intentions could be the mediators between satisfaction and behaviour.

Past research on the attitude-behaviour relationship has been conducted within the framework of the 'theory of reasoned action' (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980 and Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The constructs employed by the theory of reasoned action were fundamentally motivational in nature. The theory of 'reasoned action' maintained that attitudes affected behaviour indirectly through intentions. As this

theory has shown, the immediate antecedent of any behaviour was the intention to perform the behaviour in question. For example, the stronger a person's intention, the more the person was expected to try the behaviour, and hence the greater the likelihood that the behaviour would actually be performed (Ajzen & Madden, 1986).

Ajzen & Madden (1986) explained that the theory of reasoned action specified two conceptually independent determinants of intention. One was the personal factor termed attitude toward the behaviour (found in the top left hand corner of Figure 2.4) and referred to the degree to which a person had a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. The second predictor of intention was that of subjective norms (found on the bottom left hand corner of Figure 2.4). This was a social factor and referred to the perceived social pressure to either perform or not perform the behaviour. Attitude and subjective norm, each weighted for its relative importance, were assumed jointly to determine behavioural intention (in the middle of Figure 2.4).

Ajzen & Madden (1986) added that the theory of reasoned action dealt with the antecedents of attitudes and subjective norms, both being antecedents which in the final analysis determined the intentions and actions. The theory postulated that behaviour was a function of salient information, or beliefs, relevant to the behaviour. Two kinds of beliefs were distinguished, namely behavioural beliefs, which were assumed to influence attitudes toward the behaviour (found on the right hand side of Figure 2.4) and normative beliefs, which constituted the underlying determinants of subjective norms. Each behavioural belief linked the behaviour to a certain outcome or to some other attribute, such as the cost incurred by performing the behaviour.

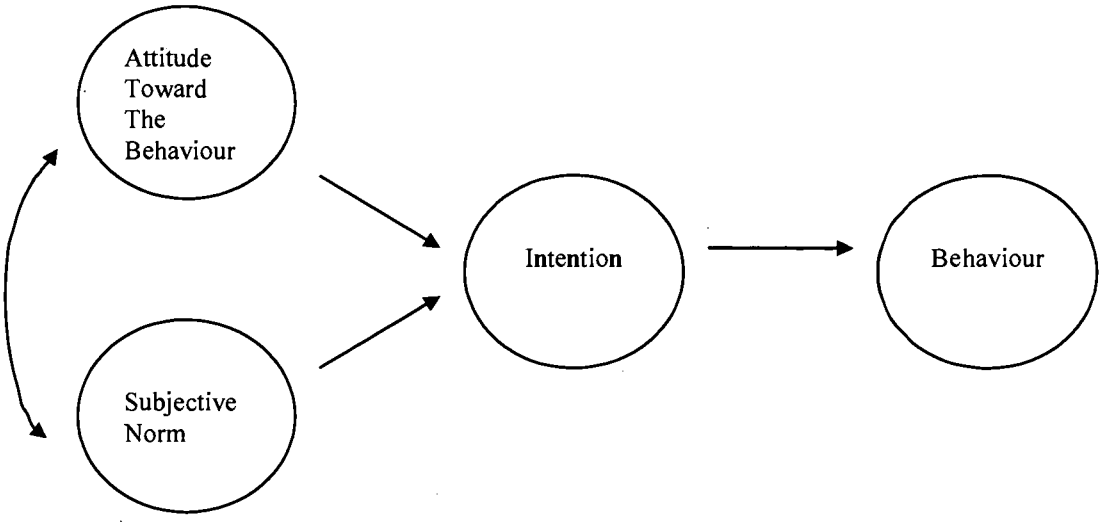

Figure 2.4 Theory of reasoned action. (Source: Ajzen, I., and Madden, T. J. (1986). Prediction of goal-directed behavior: Attitudes, intentions, and perceived behavioral control, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 22, 453-474.)

Bagozzi & Yi (1989) found that the degree of intention formation, or how well formed intentions were, was manipulated by facilitating or disrupting the process of intention formation. As hypothesised in their study, the degree to which intentions were well formed affected the way in which attitudes influenced behaviour. When intentions were well formed, they completely mediated the effects of attitudes on behaviour in keeping with the theory of reasoned action by Ajzen & Fishbein (1980). On the other hand, they found when intentions were poorly formed, however, the mediating role of intentions was reduced, and attitudes had a direct effect on behaviour.

According to Triandis (1980), intentions were "instructions people give to themselves to behave in certain ways" (p203). This definition implied that intentions represented a person's scripts and plans for their future behaviours. In the process of forming intentions, people were likely to firstly consider the various implications of their behaviour, before they made a commitment as to the action they would take (Bagozzi, 1981).

Rosse & Miller's (1984) "cybernetic theory" of job adaptation and Hulin *et al.'s* (1985) withdrawal theory also expounded the concept that intention could determine behaviour, whereby they proposed that negative job attitudes were the cause of absenteeism. The two models included "evaluation of alternatives" or "behavioural intentions" as penultimate steps to absenteeism. Contemporary

research that also used intention as an indicator for withdrawal behaviours included the studies undertaken by Johnsrud (1996), Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) and Johnsrud & Rosser (2002). As a consequence, the current research intends to use behavioural intentions as a surrogate for actual behaviours. The validity and sensitivity of behavioural intention measures has been demonstrated in a variety of behavioural contexts (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Hom, Katerburg, & Hulin, 1979 and Hom & Hulin, 1981).

Working from the Johns (1998) and Blau (1998) reviews, the present research aims to investigate employees' self-reported intent behaviours. The rationale for using intention to behave, was based on the notion that it had been demonstrated to be a favourable method to use (Ajzen & Madden, 1986), when dealing with records of employees' actual withdrawal processes. "Behavioural intentions, evaluated against actual behaviours when they could be assessed, have been found to be significantly related and are an ideal substitute when time constraints will not allow the actual behaviours to be measured" (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, p66).

Access to public service records of employees' attendances have proven near impossible to obtain due to employee confidentiality clauses. This was certainly the past experience of the present researcher. Organisational management has resisted providing records-based data and has sometimes made subject anonymity a condition for access (Dalton & Mesch, 1991). Brooke & Price (1989) indicated that restrictions because of the United States Privacy Act precluded them from accessing absence records.

"Even when management is cooperative with researchers seeking entrée to absence records, research subjects may not be. This can be seen by examining the response rates for absenteeism studies in which respondents are willing to complete questionnaires or interviews but not to provide adequate identification so that their objective absence record can be inspected" (Johns, 1994a, p581).

Thus, there are many barriers which have been shown by Johns to impede access to actual employee records. Withdrawal behaviours, such as lateness and minor behaviours have proven difficult to assess or measure objectively (Koslowsky, 2000). The measurement of withdrawal behaviours has proven challenging enough, without the recording of such events being exposed to attribution biases (Jones & Nisbett, 1972) or perceived inflation (Crampton & Wagner, 1994) by co-

workers, or inaccurate supervisory record keeping. Nicholson, Wall & Lischeron (1977) justified employee self reports partially on the grounds that organisational records might contain errors, whereas Hanisch & Hulin (1990) noted distributional problems of record based data.

Hence, even if such data was accessible by a researcher, inaccurate recordings by payroll officers may corrupt data collation. Additionally, it is possible that employee records (e.g. sick leave forms) may be lost in bureaucratic administrative processes, resulting in inaccurate employee records. For example, Dalton & Mesch (1991) proposed that when employees took sick days when they were not actually ill, inaccurate and misleading organisational records were often generated as a consequence of this, due to recording biases and errors by administration.

Thus, actual records may not prove to be as predictive for employee behaviours as intention to behave might be, for the reason that actual organisational records may not accurately reflect an employee's perception of their current behaviours for themselves and for others. Johnsrud (1996) used a morale survey in her research and included job satisfaction under the broader heading of morale whilst looking at the single withdrawal behaviour of 'intention to leave' the organisation. The current research aims to use the Johnsrud morale survey, and frame any additional withdrawal questions in terms of intent. This establishes some consistency in methodological approach, as argued by Mitra *et al.* (1992).

SECTION THREE: SELF-PERCEPTION VERSUS PERCEPTION OF OTHERS

A review of the literature revealed that there have only been a few studies that have considered perceptions of biasing influences, where self and others were compared. With the exception of the study by Wilson, Houston, Etling, & Brekke (1996) which investigated people's perceptions concerning the impact of "anchors" on their own versus others' judgements, most research has dealt with biases involving self-enhancement (or in-group enhancement) or self-interest (Watson, 1982; Goethals, 1986; Vivian & Berkowitz, 1992; Friedrich, 1996; Miller & Ratner, 1998; Heath, 1999; Kruger & Gilovich, 1999; Epley & Dunning,

2000 and Van Boven, Dunning & Loewenstein, 2000). These studies generally have demonstrated that people overestimated the extent to which they personally were influenced by 'objective' concerns and/or overestimated the extent to which others were influenced by self-serving concerns. Namely, people detected or inferred self-enhancement and self-interest in others' judgements and behaviours, whilst at the same time being unaware of the influence that such processes had on their own judgements and behaviours.

For instance, Epley & Dunning (2000) asked participants to predict their own behaviours and that of an average student, in specific situations where one's behaviours might be influenced by self-interest (e.g. buying few vs. many flowers in support of an on-campus charity drive). Their participants' predictions suggested that they believed self-interest played little role in determining their own decisions to support the charity, but that it played a considerable role in determining others' decisions. These predictions turned out to be generally correct with regard to their peers, but incorrect with regard to themselves. That is, the participants' own responses, like those of their fellow participants, were substantially influenced by self-interest.

In other words, when participants evaluated themselves, they tended to overestimate their own 'good' behaviour. They typically believed they were more likely to engage in selfless, kind and generous behaviours compared with their peers. When they estimated their peers' behaviours, they were more accurate with the results of the actual behaviours performed.

An influential series of studies by Miller & Ratner (1998) on the "myth of self-interest", suggested that people sometimes overestimated the role that incentives and other self-interested motives played in the responses of their peers. Their participants, for example, overestimated the extent to which prospective blood donors would be influenced by economic incentives, and the extent to which smokers and nonsmokers differed, concerning the legitimacy of particular smoking restrictions. Moreover, participants made such predictions even as they claimed that their own responses would be untainted by such motivational biases. Heath (1999) provided similar evidence, demonstrating that workers assumed others' on-the-job motivations were rooted primarily in extrinsic financial

incentives, whilst reporting that they, themselves, were primarily motivated by intrinsic incentives, such as the opportunity to learn new skills.

More recently, a line of research has evaluated withdrawal behaviours from a cognitive perspective. The relative importance of studying individual perceptions was believed to lie in the fact that cognitive processes were often important contributors to all behaviours. The underlying belief for this research was that individual perceptions may be directly related to actual withdrawal behaviours. Johns (1994a) was one of the first researchers to directly assess employees' and managers' self versus others perceptions regarding the withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism.

Johns (1994a) contended that, although perceptions of absenteeism in particular may have been influenced by a variety of factors, self–serving biases played a dominant role in influencing these perceptions. 'Self-serving' has been generally defined as the predilection of people to protect their self-esteem and therefore take credit for success and avoid responsibility for failure (Fiske & Taylor, 1984 and Bierhoff, 1989). Thus, self-serving biases have been seen as the tendency of individuals to attribute cause for performance success to personal factors, but to assign cause for performance failure to external factors (Miller & Ross, 1975; Bradley, 1978 and Gioia & Sims, 1985).

Another example of self-serving bias was the study conducted by Schlenker & Miller (1977), whereby people associated themselves with positive group outcomes and dissociated themselves from negative group outcomes. A possible explanation for this mindset may have been as Gioia (1989) stated cogently, that "organizational members engage in (often unconscious) self-serving perceptions of their own performance because such perceptions help them make sense of their organizational experience in a way that maintains a positive concept of themselves and their competencies" (p220).

Whilst researching employees' perceptions of absenteeism, Johns (1994a) found support for an inclination toward a self-serving bias when employees evaluated themselves against their work group. Employees estimated their own level of

absenteeism to be significantly lower than their estimate of the absenteeism of utility workers in general, and lower than their peers within their own work group.

Self-serving biases were believed by Johns (1994a) to be an ego-protection mechanism in which deviant or negative withdrawal behaviours were perceived as occurring less frequently in oneself as compared with others. He further noted that self-serving biases were also deemed as potentially useful in predicting individual perceptions of withdrawal behaviours. Research in the area of social psychology has largely supported the theory of self-serving biases.

Research has consistently found that individuals were inclined to identify themselves with positive results and not to identify themselves with negative results as a means of an "ego defensive" behavioural tactic (Tetlock, 1985, p309). Greenwald (1980) described this phenomenon as "one of the best established recent findings in social psychology" (p605) and went so far as to describe the ego as "totalitarian" in its thoroughness. In particular, he reviewed evidence for selective recall and fabrication of memory, both of which could have contributed to biased estimates of one's own and others' absenteeism. Although self-serving biases have been useful in predicting negative behaviours in non-work settings (Gioia & Sims, 1985), their role in withdrawal behaviours has only begun to be explored.

Johns (1994a) has been one of the more prominent researchers who have investigated how self-serving biases operated in relation to workplace absenteeism. Johns evaluated first level managers' and employees' perceptions of absenteeism in a utility company in Montreal, Canada, and found that employees were more inclined toward a self-serving bias in evaluating themselves against their occupational norm and their work group. That is, employees estimated their own level of absenteeism to be significantly lower than their peers within their own work group. This supported Johns' supposition that self-serving biases operated in estimating absenteeism.

Additionally managers estimated lower absenteeism compared with their employees and reported their work group as having lower levels of absenteeism compared with the company average. This suggested that managers also utilised a

self-serving pattern when evaluating absenteeism. His results implied that reporting on absenteeism required the use of an ego-protection mechanism, such as a self-serving bias. Namely, people should be egocentric with regard to their own absence behaviour. This may have meant that they should tend to view their own behaviour as reasonable, sensible and legitimate, when compared to others (Ross, 1977).

Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) study suggested indirect support for the theory of self-serving bias as proposed by Johns' (1994b) study. Harrison & Shaffer (1994) argued that organisational norms did not directly explain all of the variability seen in absenteeism. They suggested that other factors, such as self-serving biases could play a greater role in explaining absenteeism.

Epley & Dunning (2000) claimed that self-serving biases were believed to occur in situations where the behaviour was undesirable. If the behaviour was seen as acceptable, there was no need to protect one's ego and hence no need to engage in a self-serving bias. One model suggested that absenteeism was, in fact, undesirable, as it had some negative connotations for most people, even if it was only the knowledge that others disapproved.

Evidence for this model was seen in Nicholson's 1975 interviews of industrial workers (cited in Johns, 1994b), who had demonstrated the tendency to view absenteeism by their co-workers negatively, even when they themselves were frequently absent. Tyson (1992) also brought to light the concept that people saw themselves as being more ethical when compared with others, when confronted with ethically questionable work behaviours. Johns (1994a) also proposed "employees will be motivated to disassociate themselves from exhibiting too much absence and will attribute elevated levels of this negatively valued behaviour to others" (p229).

In this regard, self-serving biases should be applied to absenteeism only when absenteeism was previewed as being a deviant behaviour. Although authors such as Runcie (1988) stated that absenteeism was a typical example of deviance, others believed that absenteeism was not always an indicator of deviance. Whether absenteeism is considered to be deviant or not was believed by some

authors to be largely dependent upon the absence culture of the organisation. A cultural model of absenteeism has suggested that people assessed their own behaviour to that of their work group and then projected it to an appropriate occupational estimate (Johns, 1987).

The absence culture of an organisation has been seen as "the set of shared understandings about absence legitimacy in a given organization and the established 'customs and practices' of employees' absence behaviour and control" (Johns & Nicholson, 1982, p136). Although Johns (1987) did not directly evaluate the influence that absence culture had on his results, he suggested that different patterns of absence estimates would likely result from different absence cultures.

A subsequent review by Johns (1994b) compared self-reported versus record-based data after identifying studies, which included both types of measures. Johns found that based on 9 studies in the literature area, which reported 11 validity coefficients, the sample-weighted estimate of convergent validity was .64 (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). In questioning what was considered a large value or a proper one, Johns concluded that it was quite difficult to make any definitive statements. Moreover, a high or significant correlation between the two types of scales did not necessarily indicate that the levels were the same. This can be ascertained only by looking at mean values. Thus, a correlation coefficient may be high, demonstrating that the relative order between the variables is similar, but the means may be quite different.

Johns (1994b, p584) described the situation quite succinctly when he said, "it is possible that people's absence self-reports could be valid but inaccurate". In the present study, the researcher will aim to account for these inaccuracies by using employee self-reports for the various behaviours as compared to their reports for others, to investigate if self-serving biases may contribute to employees under-reporting their own behaviours. Further analysis using t-tests, ANOVA and MANVOA would consider differences between groups, rather than correlations.

Johns (1994b) also used meta-analytic techniques and compared the correlations between absence measures and job satisfaction across a series of studies. As expected, negative correlations were obtained both for self-reports absence-job

satisfaction (sample weighted mean of. –0.16) and record-based absence-job satisfaction (sample weighted mean of. –0.12). As the confidence intervals around each value included the value of 0, neither measure showed a significant difference between each other in association with job satisfaction.

Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits (2001) conducted a similar study to Johns' (1994b) review, however, instead of using self-reports for absenteeism, they used self-reports as a measure when examining lateness in 157 white-collar workers. They found support for Johns' study, in that their results indicated that self-reports of lateness were moderately correlated with the information available from the subjects' actual file data; the mean for the former was lower that the latter. In other words, employees under reported their own lateness behaviours ($M = 0.23$) when compared with actual organisation employee records ($M = 0.31$). Additionally Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits (2001) proposed that their results showed "that a series of self report measures (similar to a series of items on a test) may be a way for obtaining quite a good indication of the record based data" (p154).

Using a varied research design to that of Johns' (1994b) and Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits' (2001) studies, (i.e. employees' self-reports versus employees' actual records), the current research aims to compare employees' self-reports with those employees' estimates of others (i.e. their colleagues). Furthermore, the current study aims to use a sample of low morale employees to estimate self and others' reports for five withdrawal behavioural variables (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfer and exiting the organisation) rather than just absence or lateness alone.

SECTION FOUR: LINKING JOB SATISFACTION AND MORALE THEORY WITH WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS

Ransom 1995 (cited in Coleman, 2003, p8) stated that "high morale makes everything possible and poor morale makes nothing work right". Ransom echoed what apparently many managers have held as the truth concerning the impact that morale has upon an organisation. Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) stated "there has been no effort to assess satisfaction under the larger rubric of morale" (p122).

Morale studies have viewed morale as both an emergent collective trait and a counterpart to individual satisfaction. As such, Johnsrud (1996) described employee morale as the level of well being that individuals experienced in reference to their work-life. Latter studies by Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) found that morale was in fact multidimensional and that it was best defined as "a state of mind regarding one's job, including satisfaction, commitment, loyalty and a sense of common purpose with respect to one's work" (p123).

Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) found that, historically, whilst the importance of job satisfaction may have been obvious for managers, exactly what it was and how it could be achieved was less than clear. Numerous studies over the past years have attempted to define, quantify and measure job satisfaction. Hackman & Oldham (1980) described satisfaction as an overall measure to which the employee was satisfied or happy in his or her work.

Locke (1976) found that social scientists, managers and workers have remained interested in the concept, because of its perceived relationship to variables that have distinct impacts upon organisations. Hoppock (1977) emphasised, in one of the earliest studies investigating the broad concept of job satisfaction, the multiple factors which could affect a worker's feelings toward his tasks. This study included items such as fatigue, monotony, working conditions and supervision, which had also been investigated in the Hawthorne Studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1949).

"Motivation to Work", published by Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1959) posited a theory that has been central to job satisfaction studies since 1959. Their theory introduced different factors called motivators and hygienes and stated that these factors were responsible for satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg and his colleagues examined the attitudes of subjects, and then asked about factors in their work which caused specific attitudes. Following this, they asked about the effects of a given attitude. Herzberg *et al.* (1959) concluded that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction were not opposites, but were two separate and parallel tracks. Furthermore, they concluded that job satisfaction was determined by the content of the job, which included task achievement, recognition, and intrinsic interest in the task, responsibility and occupational growth, i.e. "motivators". Job

dissatisfaction, on the other hand, was determined by the context of the job and included organisational politics, working conditions, salary, interpersonal relations, personal status, and job security, i.e. "hygienes".

Vroom (1964) criticised Herzberg's *et al.* (1959) theory and reasoned that respondents were more likely to attribute causes of satisfaction to their own achievements on the job. Alternatively, they may have been more likely to attribute causes of dissatisfaction to factors in the work environment over which they had no control, rather than to their personal deficiencies. As these authors have shown, a relationship between employee satisfaction and motivation to work has been demonstrated.

Job satisfaction has been one of the most widely studied and measured constructs in the organisational behaviour and management literature. Interest in job satisfaction has proceeded from its relationships with other substantial organisational outcomes, including withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism, organisational commitment, turnover, and performance (Smith, 1992).

The theoretical definition of job satisfaction has included evaluative or expectancy components. For example, researchers such as Locke (1976) have defined job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state which resulted from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Similarly, Mottaz (1988) regarded job satisfaction as an affective response that resulted from an evaluation of the work situation. It has been widely accepted that job satisfaction was a function of work-related rewards and values (Vroom, 1964 and Kalleberg, 1977).

Most approaches to job satisfaction have been based on the theories of motivation and attitudes towards work, as developed by Herzberg, Maslow, & Vroom. Maslow (1954) hypothesised that within every human being there existed a hierarchy of five needs, which included psychological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory suggested that although no need was ever fully gratified, a substantially satisfied need no longer motivated behaviour.

Robbins (1993) stated that it was critical that organisations understood which level of the hierarchy an employee was at within their company, and should focus on satisfying the employee's needs at or above that level. Herzberg's (1966) motivation-hygiene theory proposed that there were two factors, which affected an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work. According to this two-factor theory, intrinsic factors such as an employee's opportunity for personal achievement, their recognition by supervisors, the work itself, and growth opportunities were related to job satisfaction.

Conversely, extrinsic factors such as company policy, administration, supervision, and working conditions were associated with job dissatisfaction. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory also influenced the development of the construct of job satisfaction. Expectancy theory argued that the strength of a tendency to behave in a certain way depended on the strength of the expectation that a given outcome would result from the act, and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual. Robbins (1993) stated that expectancy theory predicted that an employee would perform at a high level of effort if he or she perceived that there was a strong relationship between effort and performance, performance and rewards, and rewards and satisfaction of their personal goals.

Many researchers have supported the notion that job redesign was a means of enhancing employee job satisfaction, by making jobs more interesting (Herzberg *et al.,* 1959 and Herzberg, 1968). This was achieved by changing the characteristics of a person's job and tasks. Job characteristics referred to the content and nature of job tasks themselves (Spector, 1997). The most influential theory, which considered how job characteristics affected people, was Hackman & Oldham's (1980) job characteristics theory. The basis of the job characteristics theory proposed that people were motivated by the intrinsic satisfaction they found when doing their job tasks.

When employees found their work to be meaningful, they tended to enjoy their jobs and would be motivated to perform their jobs well. According to the job characteristics theory there were five core characteristics that could be applied to any job: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. These five core characteristics were thought to lead to three psychological states,

which included experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work. The combination of skill variety, task identity, and task significance would produce a meaningful work experience. Autonomy led to feelings of responsibility. Feedback resulted in knowledge of the results of the products of work. The three psychological states in turn contributed to critical outcomes of job satisfaction and employee motivation (Spector, 1997). In other words, the more often those psychological states were present, the greater would be the employee's motivation, performance, and satisfaction.

In terms of measurement, job satisfaction has been considered as being the global feelings about a job, or as the related constellation of attitudes about various facets of a job. The global approach has been applied when the overall attitude has been of interest. On the other hand, the facet approach has been used when one wished to find out which parts of the job produced satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The facet approach has been described as being useful, in that it provided organisations with the opportunity to identify areas of dissatisfaction, which they could improve upon (Spector, 1997).

The job satisfaction facet could be related to any aspect of a job, including the rewards, co-workers, supervisors, the work itself and the organisation. According to Spector (1997), the facet approach provided a more complete picture of an individual's job satisfaction than the global approach, because an individual could have different feelings about various facets of their job. For example, he or she might like their co-workers and dislike their pay conditions.

Job satisfaction has been thought of as being a general construct that was composed of an individual's evaluations of, and subsequent reactions to, specific aspects of their job (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969). Job satisfaction has been described as the most important variable when predicting the behaviour of employees after their entry into an organisation (Roznowski & Hulin, 1992).

As a term, employee morale has often been confused with employee motivation, and although they have appeared as being similar notions, they have been described as being quite different in nature. For example, a study by Kettley

(1995) found that although staff remained committed to meeting their personal work objectives and responded to customer needs, they often felt aggrieved to a greater or lesser extent with their work environment. In other words, they "remain motivated but have low morale" (Kettley, 1995, p6). Berelson & Steiner, 1964 (cited in Steers & Porter, 1975, p289) proposed that, "motive is an inner state that energises, activates or moves (hence motivation), and that directs or channels behaviour towards a goal".

As Johnsrud (1996) expounded, despite frequently made references in the past, the term morale has not been a well-defined or precisely measured concept. For example, a number of researchers (Baynes, 1967; Kanter, 1977; Westbrook, 1980; Benge & Hickey, 1984; Gal, 1986; Doherty, 1988 and Johnsrud, 1996) have defined morale in many ways. Morale studies have tended to view the construct of morale as being both an emergent collective trait and a counterpart to individual satisfaction.

Baynes (1967) for example, focused on morale in the military and defined the morale construct as being "a quality of mind and spirit which combines courage, self discipline, and endurance" (p108). He specifically explained that high morale was manifested when an individual showed determination to do his or her best under any circumstances. Westbrook (1980) also used the military as his reference point and argued that morale, as measured in terms of satisfaction with one's work environment, was significantly related to proficiency and discipline, particularly for those with extremely high or low morale. Zeitz (1983) defined morale as "members' affective or emotive responses to the organization... their general sense of well-being and enthusiasm for collective endeavours" (p1089).

With a similar emphasis on group membership, Lindgren (1982) noted that group members' cohesiveness was affected by the actual attractiveness for the group and the confidence that their joint efforts would make some positive contribution toward a goal. He additionally proposed that confidence and optimism with respect to problems and tasks were termed "morale". Lindgren pointed out that:

"Group morale is the composite of the morale of individual members. It is largely a function of cohesiveness; if a group is not attractive, its goals, its members, or

both, will be rejected. Morale may also be engendered by a sense of responsibility to the group as well as to society in general" (p257).

Thus, Lindgren proposed that morale was based largely on group level influences. This was a point supported by Bany & Johnson (1975), who offered a more typical description, whereby morale was related to affect, namely the feelings and emotions which arose as members of a group (classroom) interacted with one another (teachers, staff & students). As Doherty (1988) pointed out, studies of morale have traditionally involved the analysis of group cohesiveness, identity, membership and satisfaction.

Guba (1958) stated, "that it is apparent that the existence of high morale depends upon a history of high satisfaction; satisfaction, that is to say, is a necessary precursor of morale" (p207). From the researchers' premises, it was clear that a high positive relationship should have existed between measures of morale and satisfaction under stable situations. Their data indicated that high-satisfaction subjects responded in ways typical of high morale, whereas low-satisfaction subjects responded in ways typical of low morale. This was true regardless of whether the satisfaction ratings were made relative to a series of specific areas or to a single global criterion.

Conversely, Kanter (1977) proposed that the relationship between satisfaction and morale was not necessarily in the same direction. She suggested that people might have felt reasonably satisfied with the content of their job, but at the same time, frustrated about their potential for growth or mobility within the organisation. Thus, their satisfaction could be high whilst their overall morale was low. Kanter (1977) further contended that job satisfaction was not the same as commitment, which referred to the overall attachment to an organisation and which was shaped to a certain degree by opportunity.

Thus, Zeitz (1983) maintained that there were significant conceptual and methodological problems, which related to the level of analysis at which morale and satisfaction had been analysed. Using analysis of co-variance, he concluded that organisational morale was a collective property and that satisfaction was an individual property. In another effort to distinguish the relationship between morale and satisfaction, Benge & Hickey (1984) proposed a connection between

morale and satisfaction. They contended that job satisfaction was the net result of various attitudes held by an individual employee at a given time. Furthermore, job satisfaction was subject to swings from one extreme to another, but usually reverted to a reasonably stable level that was either good or poor. The authors then proffered that morale was the net result of the job satisfaction of employees in a specified group.

Gal (1986) on the other hand, described morale as being both the state of mind of an individual, which related to dedication, eagerness and willingness to sacrifice, and as a social phenomenon manifested in a group's collective enthusiasm. Doherty (1988) suggested that if persons suffered from low psychological morale, it implied that the individuals saw themselves as being powerless, socially unimportant, or encapsulated in a meaningless life. Lindgren (1982) further suggested that if employees felt that their value as individuals was recognised and accepted by the organisation, they responded by increasing their effectiveness in the workplace.

The relationship between morale and satisfaction was a recurring theme that had been debated in the literature. However, the sum of theoretical work to date has suggested that morale was best conceived as being that of a multi-dimensional construct. This theoretical complexity was addressed by Johnsrud (1996), who concluded that morale represented an "umbrella" notion, which included in addition to satisfaction with the work environment, such attributes as enthusiasm, commitment or loyalty to the institution, willingness to work, and dedication to common goals.

Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) suggested that withdrawing from work stemmed from more than just personal or social reasons alone. They found that work related factors outside of an employee's control (such as one's job) affected their morale and, in turn, influenced their work withdrawal behaviours. Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) offered insights as to the work related factors that explained the morale of mid-level administrators. The study identified individual work-life perceptions regarding recognition, external relationships with faculty, students and the public, discrimination and perceived opportunity for mobility as significant factors in explaining morale. In an earlier study, Johnsrud (1996) noted the importance of

studying morale for organisations, and stated, "many do not take the time or initiative to explore this important facet of work-life" (p126).

From arguments in the literature, morale has appeared to be a meaningful characteristic which organisations should monitor. Furthermore, there has been the assumption that morale affected behaviour. At the empirical level, however, little research exists which clearly connected morale (as a social psychological variable) to a behavioural outcome. One exception was a study by Johnsrud *et al.* (2000), in which they measured intent to leave and explored the impact of morale upon this behavioural outcome. They found that morale had a direct impact on intent to leave. However, Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) also noted that no significant differences were found for gender, race or ethnicity when looking at morale and intent to withdraw from an organisation. Additional studies by Johnsrud & Rosser (1999a, 2002) supported the connection that work-life and morale appeared to have a significant and direct impact on faculty members' intention to leave their positions, their institutions or their professions.

In addition to the above studies, which demonstrated the effects of morale upon certain workplace behaviours, Benitez (2002) argued that increased morale significantly decreased the rate of absenteeism. Benitez further proposed that morale in organisations was improved when employees felt that their employers were attentive to, and understood their needs. Scott & McKee (2002) stated that motivational recognition programs that boosted employee morale appeared to increase attendance and decreased absence rates overall. Thus, firms which focused on providing their employees' with a sense of purpose and direction, experienced improved morale (Coudron, 1996).

There are additional examples that have highlighted links between attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. Hanisch & Hulin (1991) found that employee lateness and unfavourable job behaviours resulted from job dissatisfaction. Dalton & Todor, (1987, 1993) clearly connected transfers with job dissatisfaction. Research has proposed that transferring jobs might contribute to greater employee satisfaction and commitment (Grusky, 1967; Pruden, 1973; Brett, 1982 and Veiga, 1981). On the other hand, few if any studies have appeared to consider the relationship between lateness, minimal work and transfers with morale. The

present study aims to investigate these potential relationships under the condition of low morale, a factor that had been shown to be associated with low job satisfaction (Guba, 1958).

Johnsrud (1996) addressed the question as to whether morale affected performance, and stated that, "people who feel good about their work, perform better" (p5). Not too surprisingly, early work on morale focussed on the military, and, in general, maintaining high levels of morale was considered vital for optimum performance (Westbrook, 1980). Kanter (1977) described morale as an attitudinal response to work conditions, which impacted on the behaviours of individuals within organisations. Although empirical work regarding morale and performance has been limited, there is an intuitive attraction to the notion that high morale is correlated with high performance, and its reciprocal, low morale, would be correlated with low performance. The current research intends to include the withdrawal behaviour named "minimal amount of work performed" as a variable and test this against low morale.

Moorhead & Griffin (1995) highlighted that attitudes affected performance, and additionally suggested that there were benefits for employees who had a good quality of work life. These included;

"A more positive attitude toward the work and the organization, or increased job satisfaction... another is increased productivity...a third benefit is increased effectiveness of the organization as measured by its...goal accomplishment. The third gain follows directly from the first two: if employees have more positive attitudes about the organization and their productivity increases...the organization should be more effective" (p477).

It could be suggested that Moorehead & Griffin (1995) demonstrated a connection between attitude, job satisfaction, productivity and increased effectiveness for organisations. Arguably, if employees had a negative attitude or were dissatisfied with their work or the organisation, then their productivity may decrease and the organisation would be less efficient in meeting their overall goals.

McKeachie, whose work explored the extent to which faculty members were motivated by financial incentives (1979), and the factors which related to

continued vitality and productivity amongst employees (1983), was quoted in Bowen & Schuster (1986), as follows:

"Faculty members, like other human beings, can do a great deal to construct their own environments. They are curious; they like to feel competent; they will work hard when they feel they are making a contribution. A sense of being appreciated for those contributions, a feeling that the future has at least some bright spots, a sense of being valued by one's colleagues and administrators, these are the things that induce performance" (p41).

In this sense, Bowen & Schuster (1986) emphasised that if employees felt valued for their contributions, then their performance increased. Arguably, if employees did not feel valued, then their performances should have decreased. Benton (1972) also asserted that management needed to be aware of the relationship between morale and employee productivity. He stated:

"Most people believe that high morale will always lead to high productivity. While this is not always true, in the twenty studies of the link between the two, most of them show that high morale is associated with high productivity. The best interests of management are served if there is a constant awareness of the spirit and harmony of workers. That includes knowing employee attitudes towards the job, job satisfactions, and personal adjustment. If you keep continually being aware of attitudes, you can take steps that should result in improved productivity. Management is finding it useful to try to anticipate and prevent problems from arising. In that connection, morale surveys are a valuable tool" (p78).

Benton (1972) highlighted the importance of the relationship between productivity (performance) and morale; namely, high morale being associated with high performance and its converse. Thus the identification and treatment of low morale has been identified as being beneficial for organisations to maintain their productivity. He also identified the value of using morale surveys in accomplishing this.

Makawatsakul & Kleiner (2003) have found that "high employee morale and loyalty are often regarded as a critical asset of the company" (p54). They stated that although competitors might be able to duplicate the aspects of a particular company's physical assets, it was another matter to recreate the harmony or high morale of a workplace. They additionally argued that identification of employee withdrawal behaviours in their various forms (e.g. productivity losses, unwillingness to work longer hours, increases in the rates of absenteeism) were

indicative of low employee morale. They additionally proposed that although morale seemed a difficult concept to measure, the acceptable indicators (such as rate of absenteeism) were very effective, and lent themselves to precise measurement and reasoned interpretation.

How could low employee morale be measured? Surveys might be such a method that organisations could use, once they had the inclination that employees were unhappy about the workplace, or the work itself. Makawatsakul & Kleiner (2003) found that decreased employee morale might be identified by an increase in the number and intensity of complaints from employees and middle managers. Other indicators of low morale might be a "growing unwillingness to work longer hours, an increase in the rate of absenteeism, and overall feelings of sluggishness" (p55).

Benge & Hickey (1984) have argued that there were several ways in which researchers might study employee morale:

1. Study corporate personnel records for patterns of resignations, lateness, absenteeism, productivity, and complaints. *This method measures effects and not causes, therefore lacks effectiveness.*
2. Conduct structured interviews with employees. *This method is costly and time consuming.*
3. Execute unsigned surveys to groups of employees. *This is the most effective method.*

In other words, Benge & Hickey (1984) proposed that surveys were the most effective and productive method of evaluating an employee's job satisfaction and level of morale, at any given period of time. They also argued that "learning what is on employees' minds will help you head off problems before they lead to lateness, absenteeism, strikes and personal turnover" (Benge & Hickey, 1984 p6). They additionally stated that attitude surveys, opinion surveys and morale surveys should be repeated periodically and not just once, to gain a comparison of a series of scores over time. This would reveal trends which might help managers determine whether or not their attempts to improve morale and productivity were succeeding. Zikmund, (1997) also found that longitudinal studies might establish

continuity in the responses of employees, and observe the changes that might occur over time.

The importance of identifying such trends and patterns in workplace behaviours has been a focus of the business sector at large. Patrickson & Sutiyono (2003) stated that human resource management practices have continued to seek new ways in which they could recruit and retain staff within organisations. Organisations have attempted to reduce withdrawal behaviours by initiating flexible working conditions and enriching employees' job duties which has allowed for more satisfying and interesting work (Schermerhorn, 1996 and Clark, 1992). Thus, any factors, which might help identify changes in employee morale or reduce withdrawal behaviours, would be of benefit to employer groups.

Researchers over time have debated whether morale was an individual perception, or a collective property, or both (Lindgren, 1982; Zeitz, 1983; Hox & Kreft, 1994; and Johnsrud *et al.,* 2000). For example, Zeitz (1983) and others have defined morale as being a collective trait, which described members' affective responses to organisations. In contrast, others have conceptualised morale as being an individually held set of beliefs (Baynes, 1967; Wofford, 1971; Westbrook, 1980 and Doherty, 1988). To some extent, limitations in the conceptualisation of organisational constructs such as morale have related to methodological variances, such as the choice of appropriate units of analysis (Zeitz, 1983). For example, should such constructs be measured and analysed at the individual level, the group level, or as individuals nestled within groups? In one such study, Des Jarlais 1995 (cited in Johnsrud *et al.,* 2000) determined that variance in change in morale amongst faculty members, was found to result almost entirely from an individual's own perceptions. On the other hand, Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) found that amongst midlevel administrators, morale varied at both the individual and institutional levels.

Overall, Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) found that morale was based largely upon individual perceptions, and these perceptions were reflections of the values and norms of an organisation. The authors proposed that it would make good organisational sense if employers attended to the morale issues in their work environment. The results of their study demonstrated that changes in morale led to

changes in turnover, a finding that should be relevant to all organisations. Although these authors believed "it is clear that turnover may bring some advantages (such as fresh perspectives, increased diversity, salary savings) and disadvantages (e.g. recruitment costs, loss of expertise and stability, training costs), it is less than clear just how much turnover is healthy and at what point turnover becomes deleterious" (p48). In other words, the findings of their study suggested that it was in an organisation's best interests, to reduce withdrawal behaviours such as turnover intent. This could be achieved by examining employees' perceptions of their work-life conditions. Overall, their study suggested that an increase in morale would result in a decrease in turnover.

Boosting employee morale has been described as being easier said than done (Gioia, 2002, cited in Coleman, 2003). Johnsrud (1996) quantified the importance of morale with respect to withdrawal behaviours in the workplace, by stating:

"Low morale characterizes those employees most likely to grouse, to work begrudgingly, or to do the least work possible; they feel most alienated from the organization. Organizations are well served to do what they can to ensure the high morale of their employees. Morale also matters because successful organizations know that their human resources are their most important resources for reasons beyond productivity. Organizations come to be characterized as good places to work, as places that value their employees, as places that care about their employees' welfare. When morale is high, turnover costs are lower; employees are less likely to leave because they are not happy or because the "grass looks greener" elsewhere. Recruiting and retaining personnel is that much easier when an organization has a reputation for good people management. Morale is contagious. The high morale of current employees is passed on to new employees and so is the low morale. It is evident from the foregoing assumptions as well as from the review of the literature on morale that organizations have a stake in the morale of their employees"(p6).

In this statement, Johnsrud made clear connections between morale and work behaviours, and the importance for managers to maintain a positive morale in the workplace so as to maintain positive work behaviours amongst their employees. To the same extent, an understanding of the impact that low morale has upon behaviours would arguably be just as important for managers. Overall, the literature has appeared to strongly suggest that there is a potentially significant relationship between withdrawal behaviours and low morale. Given Johnsrud's (1996) clear demonstration of the connection between intention to behave and low

morale, it seems appropriate that the current study should adopt the Johnsrud (1996) morale survey, for consistency and possible comparisons.

SUMMARY

After a review of the pertinent literature, it appeared that four major areas of research appeared to be related to one another; however, the links between them had not yet been fully or empirically established. The present thesis aims to expand on these gaps in the literature, by bringing these ideas and theoretical formulations together to form the more global concept of withdrawal of labour under conditions of low morale.

Hanisch & Hulin, (1990, 1991) and Hanisch *et al.* (1998) advocated the development of multi-item behavioural constructs, and studied behavioural variables collectively. Laczo & Hanisch (1999) furthered those ideas and forwarded an assumption that internal transfers belonged to the category of work withdrawal behaviour, with turnover; however, they did not empirically test this argument.

Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) argued for the study of withdrawal behaviours to be conducted independently, although they were not averse to the proposals by Hanisch and colleagues, that the concept of using multi-item behavioural constructs had merit. Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994) proposed the concept that employee's engaged self-serving bias and ego protective mechanisms when enacting unfavourable withdrawal behaviours. However, the authors only tested those theories against the single withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism.

It has been established that attitudes predicted behaviour through intention. Azjen & Madden (1986) demonstrated that intention was a good proxy for actual behavioural assessments. Additionally, Dalton and Todor (1993) established that there were major issues with obtaining actual record based data when investigating withdrawal behaviours. Furthermore, Johns (1994b) and Koslowsky (2000) proposed that employee self-reports were valid indicators to use when actual records were difficult to obtain. Again, research has not empirically tested

intention and self-report measures together against multiple withdrawal behaviours.

Johnsrud and colleagues proposed that morale represented an "umbrella" notion, which included many facets of employee satisfaction with the work environment. Additionally, they advocated the use of morale studies in the workplace, as they found that morale was a predictor of intent to engage in leaving behaviour. However, the authors did not test low morale against other withdrawal behaviours.

Thus, the present thesis uniquely aims to collectively incorporate these broad organisational theories together to investigate multiple withdrawal behaviours in a broad sample population. The conglomeration of these theories and behaviours will constitute the present research's concept of 'withdrawal of labour'.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL LINKS TO HYPOTHESES

INTRODUCTION

The theoretical links to hypotheses outlines the processes which the present thesis will take in relation to the research hypotheses. Firstly, the research hypotheses of the study will be outlined, followed by the justification of those hypotheses, which is based on the peer literature to date. Secondly, this chapter will present the input-output theory-sourced framework for the withdrawal behaviours and the constructs relevant to the previous literature and that of the present thesis.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

After reviewing the pertinent literature in regard to withdrawal behaviours, the self-serving bias theory as proposed by Johns (1994a) emerged as an interesting argument which could be explored further. The theory proposed that self-serving biases in individuals were an ego protective mechanism, in which deviant or negative withdrawal behaviours were perceived as occurring less frequently in oneself, as compared with others. Johns further noted that those self-serving biases were also deemed as being potentially useful, especially when predicting individual perceptions of withdrawal behaviours. In other words, individual's true intentions were reflected through their reports for others, i.e. employees own behaviours would be reflected through their perceptions of their colleagues' behaviours. In applying Johns' arguments, the current research aims to investigate whether or not this is evident with respect to the withdrawal behaviours chosen for the current study, and whether the current studies findings will align with the results of Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others.

The measurement of certain withdrawal behaviours has proven difficult to quantify (Koslowsky, 2000). This has been the case, especially when attempting to measure, for example, when a person has appeared to be working, but may not have been. Employees have avoided work, or disguised their work withdrawal behaviours by the use of certain tactics, such as organising meetings, filing

paperwork or talking on the telephone (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). Thus, one could argue that others might perceive an employee who is enacting these types of behaviours as performing minimal work. Likewise, people who are absent or late for work may either have legitimate or illegitimate or voluntary or involuntary reasons for doing so.

Unless organisations extensively use time clocks to establish the entry and departure times for every employee, and keep records of when an employee is present or not at their workstation, the quantification of these behaviours would be hard to establish. Even if organisations were able to document such behaviours, colleagues may falsify, or managers may poorly remember, their employees' attendances and absences. For example, employee and supervisor records regarding employee attendances have been subject to attribution biases (Jones & Nisbett, 1972 and Payne & Nicholson, 1987). It is suggested that the three withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) might form a cluster (factor) of behavioural intentions to withdraw labour at work. In this thesis, this possible cluster will be called 'covert behaviours', based on an individual psychological perspective.

Conversely, employees may be more open or obvious with respect to their withdrawal behaviours by their selection of more direct behavioural actions. These actions may include, either transferring from one office or department to another, or exiting the place of employment. Whilst the literature has generally included both transferring and leaving in the turnover concept (Jackofsky & Peters, 1983), it has mostly done so from an organisational efficiency and management perspective. However, turnover might also be considered from an individual perspective. Thus, the employee who intends to withdraw from their work may choose between transferring internally and choosing to exit the organisation entirely. Both of these behaviours would appear to be open by nature (i.e. readily obvious to the rest of the organisation when they occurred). Thus, transferring internally or exiting the organisation might potentially form another cluster (factor). In this thesis, this possible cluster will be called 'overt behaviours', again considered from the individual psychological perspective. These covert and overt behavioural clusters might align with the concept of multi-item behavioural constructs, as outlined in the literature review (Blau, 1994;

Hanisch & Hulin 1990, 1991; and Hanisch *et al.,* 1998). Therefore, the second hypothesis is proposed:

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others.

There may also be an interaction between employee self-serving biases and multi-item behavioural constructs. For example, employees may under-report their own intentions to withdraw labour in comparison with their perceptions of the intentions for others (hypothesis 1, Johns, 1994a). Additionally, employees may also under-report their intentions regarding behaviours of a covert nature, in comparison with their intentions regarding behaviours of an overt nature (hypothesis 2, Johns 1994a). People have been shown to disassociate themselves with negative outcomes, and associate themselves with positive outcomes (Johns, 1994a). Whereas the withdrawal behaviours of minimal work (Bennet & Robinson, 2000), lateness (Koslowsky, 2000) and absenteeism (Johns 1994a) have been seen as being undesirable or negative individual behaviours, transfers and quitting have been considered as representing growth and promotional opportunities, i.e. potentially positive behaviours for individuals (Stilwell *et al.*, 1998).

After reviewing the literature, the chosen behaviours for the current study also appeared to naturally group in terms of visible and measurable behaviours, versus less visible and less measurable behaviours. The visible (measurable) behaviours, such as quitting the organisation entirely (e.g. internal transfers and exiting) will be referred to as overt behaviours, whereas the less visible (less measurable) behaviours such as avoiding the work situation (e.g. minimal work, absenteeism and lateness) will be referred to as covert behaviours.

By applying the self-serving bias theory of Johns (1994a), and covert and overt behaviours to the global multi-item behavioural constructs of Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), it could be postulated that employees may associate themselves with an overt withdrawal construct and associate their colleagues with a covert withdrawal construct. In other words, employees may under-report covert intended behaviours for self, and over-report covert intended behaviours for

others. Conversely, they may over-report overt intended behaviours for self, and under-report overt intended behaviours for others. This leads to the third hypothesis of the thesis, namely:

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

The current research is unique in the approach that it takes with respect to methodological design. Whilst it might appear that there are parallels with certain aspects of the research areas which were outlined in the literature review, there are a number of points which should be appreciated when understanding the present study's design to allow the determination of the above hypotheses.

Firstly, Hanisch and colleagues argued for the use of multi-item withdrawal behavioural constructs. However, their approach was from an organisational perspective, whereas the current research will aim to adopt multi-item withdrawal behaviour analysis from an individual psychological perspective. As such, the present study will aim to use a morale survey by Johnsrud (1994), and look at individual intent, rather than the job descriptive index that has been used by other studies, which has a more organisational focus. Thus, after considering the arguments by Blau and Johns, the current research will simplify the withdrawal behaviours as used by Hanisch and colleagues, and avoid confusion with respect to the terms, definitions and scales used.

Secondly, after considering the arguments by Johns (1994a), the current research will modify its multi-item behavioural constructs by the application of the self-serving bias theory to those constructs. Thirdly, there have been arguments in the literature for behaviours to be examined independently (Blau, 1998; Johns, 1998 and Koslowsky, 2000), collectively and/or progressively (Hanish & Hulin, 1991, 1990; Roznowski & Hulin, 1992; Hanisch *et al.*, 1998 and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999). As such, the current study will allow empirical analysis to demonstrate whether or not certain behaviours load together as factors within withdrawal constructs, rather than rely on the literature assumptions.

Fourthly, the current study will aim to use a more complete sample population, compared with that of much of the literature which has often investigated withdrawal behaviours in private or industrial employee cohorts. A number of the literature findings have also been based on small sample size studies, and as such the present research aims to investigate a widely distributed public workforce more approximating a population sample. Additionally, the current sample is more in line with contemporary workplace ideals and expectations, as compared with studies that are almost two decades old.

In order to ameliorate the understanding of the current research approach, and of the literature that was reviewed, two figures are presented which demonstrate the links between the literature and that of the present study's hypotheses (see Figure 3.1 Simplified input-output: Theory-sourced framework; and Figure 3.2 Extended input-output: Theory-sourced framework). Figure 3.1 represents a brief overview of the literature, which describes the pertinent relationships and directions between morale and job satisfaction that lead to the various withdrawal behaviours. An extended view of the current research approach is outlined in Figure 3.2, whereby the elements, which are pertinent to the current research, are clearly indicated in the right hand box with the heavy (bold) border.

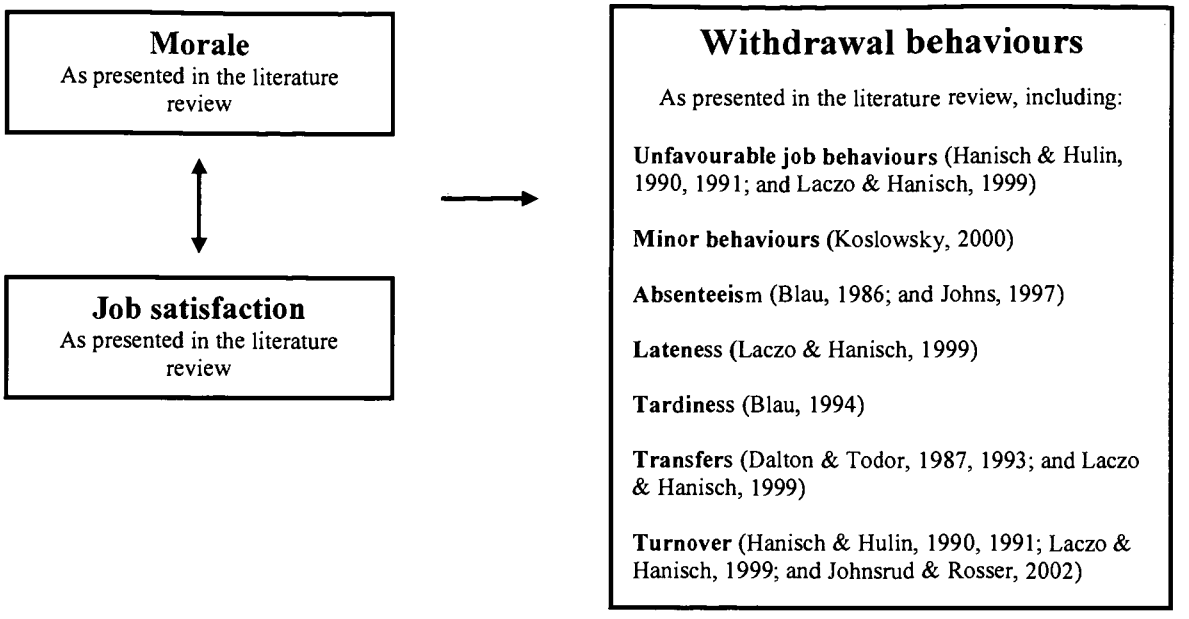

Figure 3.1 Simplified input-output: Theory-sourced framework.

This diagrammatic presentation (Figure 3.1) represents a 'simplified' exploration of some of the elements from the psychology, organisational behaviour and management literature undertaken by the current research. It is based upon the theoretical arguments made by the various researchers (Dalton & Todor, 1987, 1993; Blau, 1998; Hanisch *et al.*, 1998; Johns, 1998; and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999), who are associated with withdrawal behaviour theory, self-serving bias theory, organisational behavioural theory, job satisfaction and morale theory.

The first box represents 'Morale' theory broadly, which then transitions to the second box that represents 'Job satisfaction' theory. Studies from the literature have suggested that morale and job satisfaction can be interchangeable concepts, and may sometimes be hard to separate. The definition of these elements has been a much-debated area in the literature. However, in a more contemporary view, Johnsrud (1996) argued that job satisfaction belonged under the broader heading of employee morale. Regardless of the literature debates, both boxes represent the 'inputs' for the theory-sourced framework, whereby the collective concepts of morale and job satisfaction are responsible for the 'outputs' or behavioural consequences, namely employee withdrawal behaviours.

Thus, both the 'Morale' and 'Job satisfaction' elements lead to the right hand side box entitled 'Withdrawal behaviours', which highlights the enacted withdrawal behaviours and the relevant research sources from the literature. These include: unfavourable job behaviours (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999), minor behaviours (Koslowsky, 2000), absenteeism (Blau, 1986; and Johns, 1997), lateness (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999), tardiness (Blau, 1994), transfers (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999 and Dalton & Todor, 1987, 1993) and turnover (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999; and Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). These withdrawal behaviours represent the reactions by employees to conditions of low morale, or job dissatisfaction.

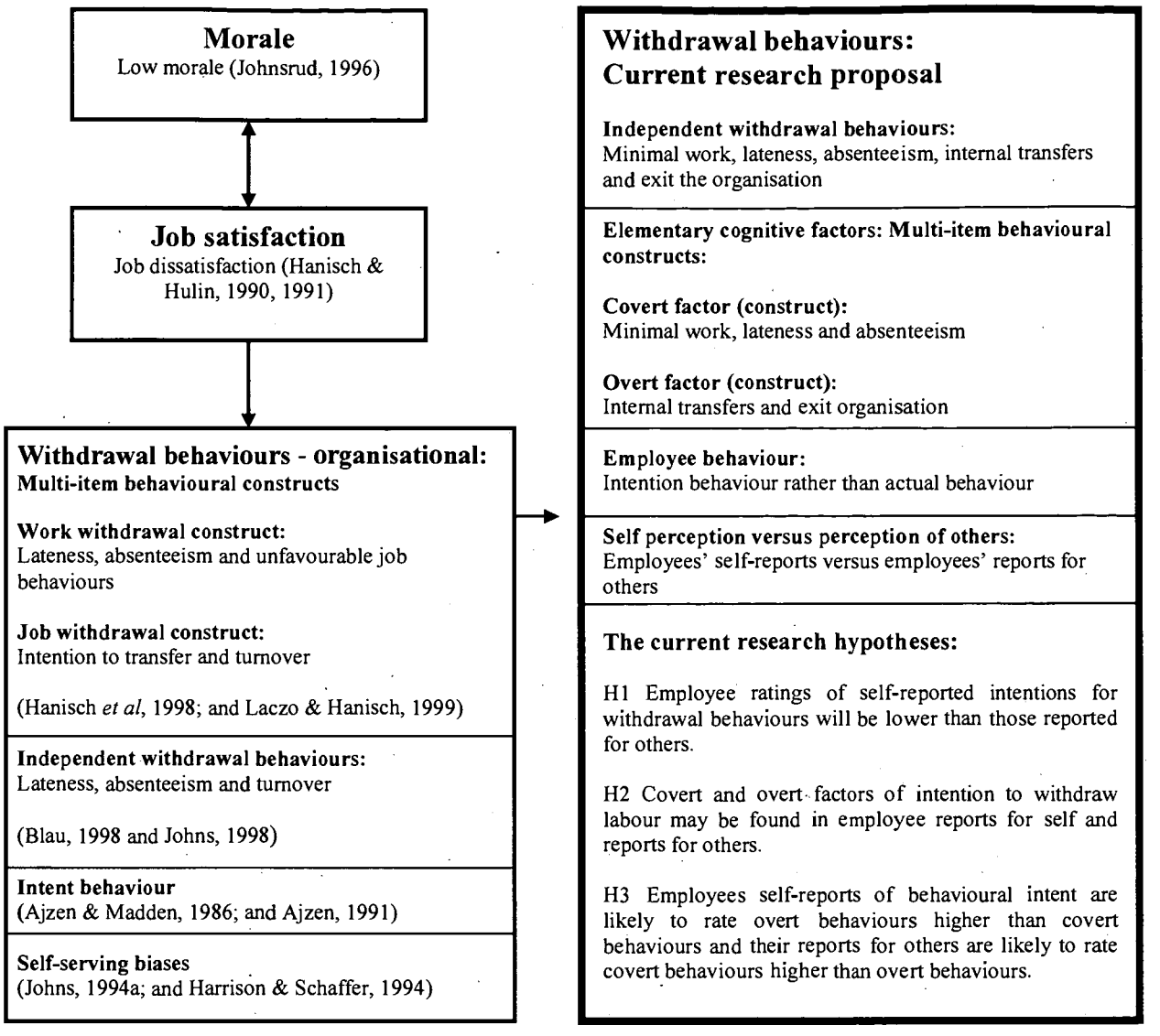

Figure 3.2 Extended input-output: Theory-sourced framework.

This figure (3.2) represents the processes and directions which the current research adopted in applying the theories from the literature to the formulation of the present study's hypotheses, and of the withdrawal of labour concept. The top left hand boxes highlight the pertinent researchers relevant to low morale and job dissatisfaction. As in the simplified framework, changes in morale or job satisfaction leads to changes in withdrawal behaviours.

The lower left hand box represents the classifications of organisational withdrawal behaviours, which includes the specific concepts from the literature with respect to the work and job withdrawal constructs (Hanisch *et al.*, 1998), independent withdrawal behaviours (Blau, 1998 and Johns, 1998), intent behaviour (Ajzen &

Madden, 1986 and Ajzen, 1991), and self-serving biases (Johns, 1994b). The 'Withdrawal behaviours organisational' box transitions to the right hand box, in which the actual extended aspects and elements of the current research are indicated ('Withdrawal behaviours: Current research proposal).

The current research proposal includes the five independent withdrawal behaviours, the multi-item behavioural constructs which encapsulate the potential covert and overt factor clusters, employee behavioural intentions, employee self-perception versus perception of others, and the consequent statement of the three hypotheses. This box indicates the relationship of the current research with respect to the broad and complex areas of withdrawal of labour and morale/ job satisfaction.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The chapter will outline the research approach, the survey instrument and the survey design. Additionally, the elements mediating the design of the survey (namely: morale, self versus others, intention, withdrawal behavioural variables), the feedback on draft survey from the participating departments, the sample and subjects, and the ethical considerations will also be presented. Subsequently, the processes involved in the data collection, the storage management will be presented.

RESEARCH APPROACH

Scientific methodology is the system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based, and is also the process by which claims for knowledge have been evaluated (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). However, Moore (1987) suggested that research methods were no more than just the tools of the trade, and lamented the tendency for persons to think that research began and ended with methodology. Nevertheless, he maintained that it was essential to be able to select the method which was most likely to meet the objectives of the research. Based on the reasoning by Moore (1987), the use of a survey instrument was considered to be the most suitable method for the type of research in the current thesis. Survey research involves the process whereby information is directly obtained from a group of individuals (Dane, 1990). Given the above points, the aim of the current study is to use a survey which would acquire information from employees of the South Australian public sector as a means of addressing the three hypotheses under investigation.

As Dane (1990) proposed, appropriate survey design might allow investigators to obtain particular information relevant to their research questions. Firstly, one could obtain facts. These are the characteristics and demographics which might objectively be observed by the researcher. An example from the current study would be whether or not employees had a tertiary background. Secondly, researchers might obtain opinions. These are the expressions of respondents' preferences, feelings or behavioural intentions. Dane (1990) posited that opinions could be objectively measured, however they could not be independently verified.

Employees rating their perceptions of their colleagues' withdrawal behaviours would be an example of this for the current thesis. Thirdly, investigators might obtain information about behaviours. These are actions completed by respondents and, in the current study, employee self-reports of withdrawal of labour intentions would be such an example.

The survey instrument

The survey instrument is a combination of an amended morale survey designed by Johnsrud (1996) (Appendix A), plus twelve additional 'withdrawal of labour' questions designed by the researcher. The combined survey can be found in Appendix B.

Several questions from Johnsrud's original morale survey were omitted when creating the current research survey instrument, on the grounds that they were not relevant to the current target population, i.e. the South Australian public service. Thus, with respect to Johnsrud's original survey, the questions on demographics (Q. 70 - 79), the tailored questions particular to university staff and intuitions (Q. 6, 16, 17, 23, 27, 28, 29, 57), the questions on whether staff planned on leaving their current position and whether staff felt 'stuck' in their current position (Q. 68, 69), the specific question which asked staff to rate their morale on campus on a one to five scale (un-numbered question, appears before Q. 68), and two qualitative questions regarding training and any extra comments, were deleted. Any additional material, such as mailing addresses for respondents, which was designed specifically for University of Hawaii's staff (APTS - Administrative, Professional and Technical Staff) was also omitted from the current survey.

Demographic questions for the current thesis survey instrument were tailored in accordance with requirements of the participating departments from the South Australian public service. Certain departments specified that they were interested in particular information, covering age, gender, position and education. Therefore, to guarantee their participation, these demographic modifications were also included in the survey instrument, following negotiations with the departments.

Subsequent to the return of the completed surveys, the demographics of age (originally consisting of five categories), and position (originally consisting of four categories), would be collapsed into two categories each to remain consistent with the other variables (gender and education), which only consisted of two categories.

Such a process would improve the statistical validity when analysing the demographic data, by increasing the cell sample sizes for each demographic. Classifying the demographic factors more simply into bivalent separations, namely age (young, old), gender (male, female), education (degree, no degree) and position (management, staff), would allow for more valid comparisons with the peer literature.

Thus, the full sub group divisions in the demographic questions were not included in the present analysis, as they formed part of the departments' interests, and not that of the current study. Additionally, certain departments were interested in the responses to two qualitative questions which were also included in the survey instrument, although the responses did not form part of the present quantitative study.

The survey instrument was utilised for several reasons in addition to those as argued by Dane (1990). Firstly, a self-administered questionnaire was considered to be the most efficient instrument to use, given the limited time frame constraints that were imposed by various government departments, and due to limited resources available to the researcher. Secondly, as Kumar (1999) and Neuman (2000) observed, the use of questionnaires offered anonymity to participants and reduced the potential for interviewer bias. Anonymity could be argued to be an asset, in terms of increasing the number of responses. Without conditions of confidentiality, employees might have been unwilling to report any potentially negative opinions concerning workplace withdrawal behaviours, for fear of reprisal from their employers.

Keohane (1971) agreed that surveys were very useful under such circumstances. He stated that self-completed surveys were a faster and cheaper method in which to gather information, compared with any form of interview process. Keohane

(1971) also proposed that surveys negated the possibility of interviewer biases occurring when collecting information. They also improved the likelihood that persons might report on matters that they considered to be personal or potentially embarrassing, which they might not wish to discuss in a face-to-face situation with an interviewer. This was contemplated when formulating the current research design, whereby it was recognised that employees might find the requirement to report their intended withdrawal of labour behaviours to be incriminatory or embarrassing.

Additionally, questionnaires are very effective, and response rates have traditionally been high in target populations which have a strong interest in the particular topic under question (Neuman, 2000). Given the nature and aims of this current study, it was hoped that the questionnaire would produce a high response rate from the sample. The questionnaire was to be completed at the discretion of the individual employee. Participants then had to submit the completed questionnaire via mail or email to the researcher by a specified return date.

Certain potential limitations were identified with this method of response. These included the researcher's inability to control the conditions (eg limited privacy in open plan offices) under which the questionnaire was completed, and the inability to clarify questions or to probe for additional information should an employee's response be unclear. Additionally, the researcher was unable to control the mood of the respondent. An employee who might have been experiencing job stress at the time of completing the questionnaire, or who may simply have been having a "bad day", might have answered the questionnaire in a negative frame of mind. Alternatively, respondents who might have been having a good day at work at the time of completing the questionnaire could have responded in an overly optimistic fashion.

Thus, it could be argued that the present study's questionnaire may only take a 'snapshot' of the employee's morale for that day on which the survey was completed. Hence, it may prove difficult for the survey instrument to reflect how an employee might feel the next day, or a week from the time that the survey was completed, or if they would behave and answer the same way, should the circumstances at work be different. At the individual level, behaviours and moods

might fluctuate in certain employees, yet remain relatively stable for other employees who experience similar work place circumstances and conditions. Thus, the use of aggregate data would reduce individual variations or outliers with respect to mood and intent, and give a better sample estimate for behaviours.

Email, as a form of assessment, might also have proven to be a limitation for the present, or any, similar study. Employees might perceive email surveys as being 'spam', and thus delete them without reading their content. Additionally, employees in government departments have anecdotally reported that 'survey saturation' has occurred at times in their workplaces, due to multiple questionnaires from differing mangers or surveyors over relatively short periods of time. Thus, participation and return rates might have been diminished by the use of voluntary questionnaires given to persons who might have recently, or compulsorily, been surveyed by other investigators.

Survey data collection techniques have an additional limitation, whereby researchers are unable to exercise control over the amount of time which participants take to complete the questionnaire. Whilst some employees may have considered each question carefully, others may have rushed through the document because of other priorities, thereby giving vague or incomplete answers.

Finally, some of the participants may have had english as a second language, and as such may have had difficulties with the interpretation and answering of questions in the survey. Nationality or culture may also have influenced an individual's responses to the questions asked in the survey. Whilst these were potentially interesting factors which may have influenced an employee's perceptions or behavioural intent, these demographics were not included as they were not the focus of the current research. They could, however, be variables to consider in future research.

The survey design

The reliability and validity of a survey instrument should be established prior to its use, in order to determine the accuracy and consistency of the particular measure (Sproull, 1998). Validity has been defined as being the accuracy of

measurement, namely, the degree to which an instrument measures that which is supposed to be measured. Reliability has been defined as being the consistency of measurement, that is, the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used, under the same conditions and with the same subjects.

Sproull (1998) also noted that an instrument may be both valid and reliable, or reliable but not valid, or neither valid nor reliable. It has also been noted that a single instrument may have several types of validity and reliability estimates, each of which may have a different purpose. Additionally, validity and reliability scores for any instrument are only estimates, and not precise figures. Arguably, validity has been described as being the most important aspect of any measure, because if an instrument does not measure accurately what it is supposed to measure, then there is limited reason to use such an instrument, even if it does measure consistently.

Kerlinger (1986) indicated that synonyms for reliability are dependability, stability, consistency, predictability and accuracy. Neuman (1994) outlined four principles which could be utilised in order to increase the reliability of measures: that researchers should clearly conceptualise constructs, should use a precise level of measurement, should use multiple indictors, and could use pilot tests when trying to improve the reliability of their instrument.

With respect to the present study, the reliability of the survey instrument was addressed by asking clear questions which requested specific information, and by utilising clear Likert scales. As noted previously, the present survey instrument was subjected to both the participating departments and the university's ethics committee's opinions for constructive feedback. The use of components of Johnsrud's (1996) previously established morale survey also ensured a degree of validity and reliability.

The survey instrument used for the present study was based on a previously established and validated morale survey which was designed by Johnsrud (1996), and was deemed appropriate as being a measure to test an individual's overall morale. As discussed earlier, whereas Johnsrud (1996) took a mean aggregate score to define a person's overall morale, and then compared various groups of

interest over a range of morale scores, the current study was only interested in respondents with low morale from the sample population used.

Given that some of the participants might find that some of the questions in the survey were not applicable to their situations (i.e. question 17, where 'revenue/resources for your unit' might not be relevant to employees who had no dealings with the financial aspects of their workplace), the option of answering 'non- applicable' was available for all questions in the survey.

When determining a person's morale, the present study calculated a mean score of the actual responses for each question by each participant. That is, it took the sum of the scores for questions answered by a participant, and divided this by the number of questions that they answered overall. Thus, for the rare cases where participants might report a non–applicable response, or did not answer a question, the calculated morale score for those individuals would be averaged, and the non-applicable or non-response question excluded. Returned questionnaires which did not answer all of the demographic questions were excluded outright from the study, as they could not adequately be analysed in the MANOVA test, and thus the profile data regarding demographics and withdrawal behaviours would be inaccurate and meaningless to the researcher.

Persons were classified as having low morale when they had a mean morale score of less than 3.0, with one being the 'least likely', three being the median point, and five being the 'most likely' on the 1-to-5 Likert scales. The current study's survey instrument used a 5-point Likert scale, in keeping with Johnsrud's (1996) original survey. Whilst there has been argument amongst the management field for the use of an even number of points within a Likert scale, the current research aimed to use a 5-point Likert scale. This ensured that the present survey would remain consistent with Johnsrud's (1996) study. Additionally, an even numbered Likert scale (e.g. 1 to 6) has no median integer associated with it, and forces participants to allocate their preference to one half of the scale, or the other. Thus, the use of an odd numbered Likert scale (e.g. 1 to 5), allows a more natural distribution about a median value, more in keeping with a population sample statistic (Kumar, 2000).

Weisberg and Bowen (1977) suggested that it was very confusing when questionnaires skipped from topic to topic, and recommended that questions regarding similar topics should be grouped together. Recognising the need for questionnaires to flow smoothly from one topic to another, the present survey instrument addressed the morale questions firstly, and then followed with the questions regarding employee behaviours in relation to low morale.

Elements mediating the design of the survey

Morale

Despite the observation that it might seem that individual morale-related questions constituted a majority of the survey instrument, withdrawal of labour, and not morale, was the focus of the present study's survey instrument. The presence of questions 1-to-60 formed that part of the survey which was designed specifically to exclusively identify individuals with low morale. To generate an accurate overall estimate of an individual's morale, questions 1-to-60 needed to cover a wide range of workplace conditions and experiences. Since it was prudent that the present research used a well-established, validated and reliable method for obtaining this sample group, the use of Johnsrud's (1996) survey instrument to achieve this was justified, and avoided the potential inconsistencies and biases possible when designing a novel morale survey oneself.

The present study also included a specific framing effect for the survey questions regarding the withdrawal behaviours (questions 61-to-70). Careful wording (i.e. "if you had low morale") was intentionally used to ensure that respondents would think in terms of a low morale mindset when answering the questions concerning themselves and others. This enabled the current research to create a double control within the survey instrument, with respect to low morale. Firstly, employees were asked how they, or their colleagues, might behave when experiencing low morale. Secondly, the morale component of the survey (i.e. the first sixty questions) allowed the identification and selection of individuals who were actually experiencing low morale (i.e. those respondents who had a mean morale score of less than 3.0). Statistical analysis would then be undertaken on this sample of employees who were actually experiencing low morale. The aim of this double

control was to ensure a more accurate representation regarding employees' perceptions of the intended behaviours under low morale conditions.

Self versus others

As indicated in Figure 3.2 (the theory-sourced framework), a central interest of the current research revolved around Johns' (1994a) study, which investigated the perceptions of self and others. In Johns' theory, self-serving biases were enacted when respondents underestimated intended withdrawal behaviours for themselves, compared with their reports for others. Additionally, Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) study suggested that organisational norms did not directly explain the total variability seen in withdrawal (absenteeism) behaviours. Therefore, other factors, such as self-serving biases, were seen to play a greater role in explaining the variation in withdrawal behaviours than did organisation norms.

As Johns (1994a) established, an individual's real intentions might be reflected through their reports for others, and the person may mediate this through an ego protective and self-serving bias mechanism. This is a valuable concept, which was incorporated into the survey instrument. It was realised that certain individuals might not be comfortable when reporting on their intentions to behave in a negative manner. Additionally, persons could find the questions regarding the withdrawal behaviours to be quite threatening and intrusive, regardless of the method used (survey, interview or focus groups).

According to Newman (2000), threatening questions have resulted in low response rates with surveys, and occasionally these types of questions have resulted in no responses at all to the questions asked. Should the current survey instrument generate low response rates for the employee self reports regarding the withdrawal behaviours, Johns' (1994a) theory would argue that one might still be able to generate an estimate of that person's own behavioural intentions, as reflected through their reports for others.

Consequently, the current research aims to modify sets of questions regarding each of the five withdrawal behaviours, and asks respondents to rate their perceptions regarding behavioural intent for themselves and for others. These

questions will generate the basic data which will allow the three hypotheses for the current research to be evaluated.

Intention

In addition to the above design conditions, another factor was also considered when formulating the current survey instrument. In both Rosse & Miller's (1984) cybernetic theory of job adaptation, and Hulin *et al.'s* (1985) withdrawal theory, two models were presented which included the "evaluation of alternatives" or "behavioural intentions" as concluding steps, which led to withdrawal (absence) behaviours. Further support for using intention as an indicator for behaviour was provided by both Fishbein & Ajzen's (1975) and Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) studies, which argued that employee attitudes influenced changes in their behaviours, and that this was mediated through their intentions. Soderlund & Ohman (2005) also suggested that intention predicted future behaviour.

Based on the above arguments for using intention as an indicator for behaviour, the current study included this concept into the present survey instrument design, and framed the withdrawal behavioural questions so that they would incorporate the component of individual intention. This would allow a more contemporary employee viewpoint, rather than relying on those persons' actual recall of the withdrawal behavioural events, either for themselves or for others. In addition, this would avoid the problems with establishing timeframes for the survey, and the confounding factor such as time recall bias, which might occur.

Withdrawal behaviour variables

Questions 61-to-70, asked the respondents to evaluate which behaviours they believed that they, and their colleagues, would perform under conditions of low morale. Five specific withdrawal behaviours were identified from the literature, namely, minimal work, lateness, absence, internal transfers and exiting, and these constituted the behaviours of interest. Whilst the literature has investigated these selected withdrawal behaviours to varying degrees (mainly with respect to job satisfaction or organisational perspectives), there are a number of aspects

regarding the withdrawal behaviours, or the withdrawal constructs, which have had limited testing, and therefore constitute the focus of the present study.

Firstly, whilst multi-item behavioural constructs have traditionally been considered from an organisational perspective (i.e. against job satisfaction or organisational commitment), morale and certain individual psychological inputs have generally not been considered in the formulation of those constructs, particularly those which are considered covert or overt by nature. Additionally, the five withdrawal behaviors have never been investigated together within a collective construct of withdrawal of labour, as in the present thesis.

Generally, the literature has used narrow sample populations from factory environments, private industries and universities etcetera. The present study aims to investigate these withdrawal behaviours in a more widely distributed sample from the South Australian public service, which comprises a broad variety of job descriptions and job classification levels.

Finally, the present study will constitute a more contemporary investigation of workplace withdrawal, particularly in relation to the withdrawal behaviours of minimal work and internal transfers which have received limited empirical testing on their own, and in relation to other withdrawal behaviours or withdrawal behavioural constructs.

Feedback on the draft survey from participating departments

Due to the limitation of access to the government departments (i.e. that there would only be one opportunity to survey the departments with no scope for a pilot study), no pilot study was undertaken for the present survey instrument. As Johnsrud (1996) had already established the validity and reliability of the original morale survey in both a pilot study and of the researchers experimental study, and given the fact that the present survey instrument very closely approximated the original morale survey, reliance upon Johnsrud's previously established validity and reliability estimates was the only possible course of action. However, the survey was subjected to examination and feedback from the departmental heads.

Prior to the distribution of the survey instrument, senior managers from each of the participating departments asked to meet with the researcher in order to ensure that the questionnaire was appropriate for distribution within each of the organisations involved. Whilst the researcher had some initial concerns that input from management might lead to some bias or altering of the aims of this study, any such fears were dispelled when only minor technical or grammatical changes (departmental internal language) were suggested.

Four demographic variables were included in the current survey in place of Johnsrud's (1996) demographic variables as part of negotiations with the participating departments. These were gender, age, education and position. It was additionally realised that some of the questions in the personal demographics section would need to be worded differently so that government employees would be able to interpret and answer those questions more accurately.

For example, in question two of the survey, it was suggested by the departments that the employees should just indicate whether or not they had completed a degree, rather than the question 'what was their highest level of education', which would have included several categories such as matriculation, TAFE, undergraduate degree, Masters, DBA etc. Management considered that it might be confusing for some employees, when interpreting their particular qualifications, in relation to the research questionnaire.

Another suggestion regarding the potential modification of the survey pertained to question four of the demographics section of the survey. Instead of asking which remuneration level the staff belonged to, it was suggested that the question should be modified by asking whether or not employees were senior management, management, staff with less than 3 years experience, or staff with more than 3 years of experience. The reason for this amendment was based on the fact that hundreds of classification/remuneration levels existed across the South Australian government, and that it would prove difficult to extrapolate comparisons between employees across government based on a non-specified categorisation of job level.

Additionally, in order to be consistent with the other variables, and to provide statistical robustness when analysing the data, two of the amended demographic questions would be collapsed into two subdivisions, namely age (into 'young' or 'old') and position (into 'management' or 'staff').

Once the suggestions from the government departments were considered and incorporated into the survey instrument, no further feedback (regarding the survey instrument) from the departments was undertaken.

Employees were not subjected to a pilot survey for the present thesis. Instead, the researcher pre-tested the survey with the heads of government departments in order to ascertain feedback, as discussed above. Given that the questionnaire for the morale component had been tried and validated by Johnsrud (1996), and after incorporating the consensus advice suggested by the aforementioned individuals from the departments and the university's ethics committee, it was decided that the survey instrument would be an appropriate measure which would allow the aims of the current project to be met.

Sample and subjects

After contacting the human resource managers from each of the government departments in order to introduce the study, letters were then sent to the appropriate senior officials of those departments, seeking their final consent. Whilst the researcher approached a majority of government departments within South Australia, approval for project participation was only granted to the researcher by six of the largest departments within the nominated time frames of the thesis candidature.

All of the departments throughout the South Australian government were approached via the same process, were subject to the same State public sector Act, and operated in a similar manner and structure to one another. The researcher had no control as to which departments might participate and grant approval to survey their employees. The six departments which did grant access to their employees, provided a wide variety of job descriptions and workplace employment levels. This enabled data to be gathered from a broad variety of job activities, ranging

from those of an administrative or clerical nature, through to parks and wildlife "ranger" type occupations. As part of participation requisite, the departments preferred to remain anonymous for confidentiality purposes. As a result, the recording, tabulation and processing of data from the participating agencies were only identified in the current research project by the classifications of Departments A, B, C, D, E or F.

The sample for this study was drawn from a relatively broad base. All employees in the participating government departments received a copy of the survey and therefore all persons had the opportunity to participate freely (so as to avoid selection or exclusion bias). Each of the six departments confirmed that all of their employees would receive the survey, and have the opportunity to complete the questionnaire. This resulted in a potential population sample size of approximately 6000 employees in total.

Questionnaires were given to a nominated contact human resource (HR) officer from each department, who distributed them to all their employees via email or hard copy on a time frame suitable to the departments and the researcher. A copy of the survey is appended (Appendix B). A detailed information covering letter accompanied each questionnaire, with instructions for the participants, if required. A copy of the letter is also appended (Appendix B).

The contact HR officer from each of the departments played no further role once the task of distribution had been performed. As such, none of the contact officers, nor any other senior staff from any of the departments, had any knowledge as to which employees had, or had not, returned their questionnaire to the researcher, as no names or employee identification numbers were included. The researcher had no direct contact with any of the participants throughout the distribution and collection phase of the survey process, eliminating selection bias on behalf of the researcher.

Completed questionnaires (which did not identify the participants in any manner) were returned in a self-addressed envelope to the researcher, or emailed directly to the researcher. As such, the anonymity of employees was guaranteed in all phases

of the survey process regarding any written or verbal communications between the employees, the researcher, and any staff from the participating departments.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher successfully completed all the requirements of the Division of Business Research Proposal Panel Review Committee, at the University of South Australia in 2005, for the approval of the study. An ethics protocol was subsequently submitted to the Higher Research Ethics Committee (HREC), in order to cover the University of South Australia in relation to any "commercial-in-confidence" material which might have been gathered from the surveys.

Following the approval of the survey by the ethics committee (HREC), the questionnaire was issued to participants with a covering letter which documented the background to the study, and assured the anonymity and voluntary nature of their participation.

The prime concern of the HREC was to ensure the confidentially of the responses by the participants. Thus, to maintain confidentially of the participants' identities, surveys were distributed to employees via the department's appropriate personnel. The confidentially of the participants' responses was achieved by the provision of reply-paid self-addressed envelopes, which allowed completed surveys to be returned directly to the researcher. The few emails which were sent directly to the researcher, had their data recorded and were then deleted from the hard drive.

It was vital that the anonymity of participants was maintained throughout and beyond the duration of this study. Given that the present thesis would be available as a public document after completion, respondents had to feel that they were able to provide honest answers without fear of reprisal. Thus, to ensure that the anonymity was, and continued to be, enforced, any identifying details of participants or departments which were made available in responses, were not recorded and removed.

The objectives of the study were made clear to each participant. Additionally, participants were able to contact the researcher for clarification of any of the elements in the survey. Participants were also able to raise, with the researcher,

any concerns or queries which they might have had during the course of responding to the survey. Not a single enquiry or concern was raised.

DATA STORAGE AND MANAGEMENT

The research data from participant questionnaires was recorded and stored in a database called Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). No other parties apart from the researcher had access to the research data (i.e. the completed questionnaires). Whilst the researcher's supervisors were consulted during the reporting process, they were only able to view the aggregated results.

In accordance with Australian Freedom of Information (FOI) legislation, written research data was kept securely stored at the researcher's university office or home in a secured facility. A back-up copy of the data and the final thesis were recorded onto a CD-ROM. The original questionnaires were destroyed once they were recorded.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analysis of the data. It begins by initially describing the appropriate statistical tests which are used to test the hypotheses (including chi-square analysis, tests of normality, skewness and kurtosis, and common method bias), the characteristics of the sample, and the descriptive statistics used to examine the variables in question. The proposed hypotheses are presented again, with the results that are generated which are reported via the aid of tables and graphs.

STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

Chi-square analysis

The chi-square (X^2) test is a common significance test which is used when comparing groups of categorical data. It compares frequencies, and tests whether the observed rate differs significantly from the expected rate, if there was no difference between groups, i.e. the null hypothesis (Myles & Gin, 2000). In the current research, the chi-square test will be used to compare the low morale sample subset ($n = 266$) with the overall sample population ($n = 655$), to establish whether or not differences exist between the two groups.

Tests of normality/ skewness and kurtosis

Before commencing either the ANOVA or MANOVA testing, skewness and kurtosis values were calculated to determine whether the five withdrawal behaviours chosen for the present study were from a normally distributed sample. Analysis was undertaken to establish whether the data was normally distributed and for the presence of any statistical outliers (none). The behaviours were all normally distributed with the exception of a single behaviour (exiting the organisation for employees self-reports), where the kurtosis was found to be 1.557. The parametric tests for normally distributed data are fairly robust against such a violation to the underlying assumptions of the test. Hence, the Pillai's Trace assumption was used, as it is designed to be very robust for any violations that may occur in the data. The Box's Test of Covariance Matrices was significant in the MANOVA test, indicating that the homogeneity of co-variances had been

violated. Therefore Pillai's Trace was used again as the test statistic, as it was robust to the violation of this assumption (Olson, 1976, 1979).

Common method biases

It is widely accepted that common method variance (i.e., variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent) poses a potential problem for behavioral research. Common method biases can arise from having a common rater, a common measurement context, a common item context, or from the characteristics of the items themselves. Obviously, in any given study, it is possible for several of these factors to be operative. Therefore, it is important to carefully evaluate the conditions under which the data are obtained to assess the extent to which method biases may be a problem.

Method biases are likely to be particularly powerful in studies in which the data for both the predictor and criterion variable are obtained from the same person in the same measurement context using the same item context and similar item characteristics. These conditions are often present in behavioral research. There are various ways to control for common method variance, each however, having particular advantages and disadvantages depending on the techniques applied. Generally speaking, the two primary ways to control for method biases are through (a) the design of the study's procedures and/or (b) statistical controls.

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) described a set of procedures (Figure 1, p 898) that might be used to control for method biases which are designed to match typical research settings. The present study followed these recommendations in order to best control for common method variance. Podsakoff *et al.* (2003) recommended that researchers should follow good measurement practice by implementing procedural remedies related to questionnaire and item design (e.g., eliminate item ambiguity, demand characteristics, social desirability). They proposed that this might be achieved by considering four key questions: (1) can the predictor and criterion variables be obtained from different sources? (2) can the predictor and criterion variables

be measured in different contexts? (3) can the source of the method bias be identified? and (4) can the method bias be validly measured? Subsequently, Podsakoff *et at.* (2003) recommended that researchers should implement additional procedural and statistical remedies to control for the method biases which were likely to be present in their specific research situation.

Procedural Remedies

Obtain measures of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources.

However, there are many disadvantages in achieving this, including the fact that researchers examining the relationships between two or more employee job attitudes often cannot obtain measures of these constructs from alternative sources. Similarly, it may not be possible to obtain archival data or to obtain archival data that adequately represent one of the constructs of interest. This was the case for the present thesis. An additional problem exists with such an approach, whereby any data which is derived from alternative sources must be linked together. This requires an identifying variable (e.g., such as the managers or employees names) that could compromise the anonymity of the respondents and reduce their willingness to participate or change the nature of their responses. In addition, it can also result in the loss of information when data on both the predictor and criterion variables are not obtained.

Achieve temporal, proximal, psychological, or methodological separation of measurement.

When it is not possible to obtain data from alternative sources, another potential remedy is to separate the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables. This might be particularly important in the study of attitude–attitude relationships. A technique to overcome this problem is to proximally or methodologically separate the measures by having respondents complete the measurement of the predictor variable under conditions or circumstances that are different from the ones under which they complete the measurement of the criterion variable. For example, researchers might use different response formats (semantic differential, Likert scales, faces scales, open-ended

questions), media (computer based vs. paper and pencil vs. face to-face interviews), and/or locations (e.g., different rooms or sites) for the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables. These techniques were applied to the design and implementation of the survey instrument for the present study.

Protecting respondent anonymity and reducing evaluation apprehension.

There are several additional procedures which can be used to reduce method biases, especially at the response editing or reporting stage. One is to allow the respondents' answers to be anonymous. Another is to assure respondents that there are no right or wrong answers and that they should answer questions as honestly as possible. These procedures should reduce people's evaluation apprehension and make them less likely to edit their responses to be more socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent, and consistent with how they think the researcher might want them to respond. Obviously, the primary disadvantage of response anonymity is that it cannot easily be used in conjunction with the two previously described procedural remedies. That is, if the researcher separates the source or the measurement context of the predictor and criterion variables, they must have some method of linking the data together. This compromises anonymity, unless a linking variable that is not related to the respondent's identity is used. Unfortunately, a common cliché reminds that sometimes you cannot have your cake and also eat it. The data were linked in the present study by having participants report on self and others perceptions for the behaviours under investigation.

Improving scale items.

Moving beyond issues of the source and context of measurement, it is also possible to reduce method biases through the careful construction of the items themselves. For example, Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski (2000) noted that one of the most common problems observed in the comprehension stage of the response process related to item ambiguity, and cautioned researchers to define ambiguous or unfamiliar terms, avoid vague concepts and provide examples when such concepts must be used, should keep questions simple, specific, and

concise, avoid double-barreled questions, decompose questions relating to more than one possibility into simpler, more focused questions and avoid complicated syntax. These issues were addressed in the planning stage of the survey instrument design.

Statistical approaches

The use of factor analysis or single-method-factor approaches have the advantage of estimating method biases at the measurement level and reducing measurement error (i.e. this might be achieved by loading all of the variables of the particular study into a factor analysis and examine the un-rotated factor solution in order to determine the number of factors which are necessary to account for the variance in the variables). Perhaps because of these advantages, such techniques have been frequently used in the literature. In keeping with previous peer literature, the present study also employed factor analysis for such a purpose.

Statistical analyses used for hypotheses

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions of withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others.

The first hypothesis, which investigates employees' self-reported intentions to withdraw labour compared with what they perceived their colleagues would do in the same circumstance, is best analysed statistically via a Paired-t test. This is in keeping with the literature, including Johnsrud, 1996; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004; and Jackson, 2005. A Paired-t test assesses whether the population means estimated from two dependent samples differ significantly from one another (Field, 2005).

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others.

Principal axis factor and reliability analysis will be used to test the second hypothesis, which investigates whether or not covert or overt factors will emerge from the withdrawal of labour behaviours. Factor analysis is an analytical

technique that permits the reduction of a large number of interrelated variables to a smaller number of latent or hidden dimensions. A goal of factor analysis is to achieve parsimony by using the smallest number of explanatory concepts to explain the maximum amount of common variance in a correlation matrix.

Factors, in essence, are hypothetical constructs or theories which help interpret the consistency in a particular data set. The value of factor analysis is that it provides a meaningful organisational scheme that can be used to interpret the magnitude of behaviours analysed with the greatest parsimony of explanatory constructs. Factor analysis will be performed on all the withdrawal of labour behavioural items to confirm validity and internal consistency reliabilities.

Factor analysis in the present study will be conducted using SPSS (Coakes & Steed, 1999; Field, 2005), by specifying the exact number of factors anticipated, in this case the five variables which are: minimal work performed, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation.

Principal-factors analysis involves examining the specific items loading on each factor in the rotated matrices, and determining what construct each might represent. Only variables correlating above 0.4 with factor should be considered to be adequately loading. Subsequently, researchers need to assess the internal consistency of each factor to determine its internal reliability. Reliability is tested using Chronbach's alpha, which is a measure of the average correlation of each item, with all other items. The closer the alpha is to 1.00, the greater the internal consistency of the items assessed (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2004). Once reliability has been confirmed, scales can be calculated as new variables. Thus, a factor loading above 0.4 is usually required for the set of items to be considered a scale for social sciences.

When several dependent and independent variables are undergoing examination, factor analysis of the combined set of variables may reveal relations among them, for example, as with the potential covert and overt factor groups for the current research. Tinsley & Tinsley, (1987) described that:

"Principal-factors analysis is the preferred exploratory-descriptive method of factor extraction when analysis of common variance is desired...when

commonalities are generally low or when there is wide variation in the commonalities of the variables...principal-factors methods provide distinctive solutions. Finally, factor analysis can also aid in theory development" (p419).

Thus, a benefit of factor analysis is that it is a useful research tool, which can be used to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller set, allowing a better understanding of the dimensions underlying the initial variables.

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

The third hypothesis investigates whether or not there may be an interaction between self-reports of behavioural intent and others, in covert and overt factors of behaviour. This would be best assessed by utilising a two-way (2 x 3) repeated measures Analysis Of Variance ANOVA. In general, the purpose of ANOVA is to test for significant differences between the means of three or more groups. It seems contradictory that a test which compares means is actually called analysis of variance. However, to determine differences between means, researchers are actually comparing the ratio of the two variances, thus ANOVA is based on the F test of variance.

With ANOVA, researchers compare the difference between the means (using variance as the measure of dispersion) with the variance within the samples. The first test asks if the difference between groups can be explained by the degree of spread (variance) within a group. It divides up the total variability (variance) into the variance *within* each group, and that *between* each group. If the observed variance between groups is greater than that within groups, then there is a significant difference.

These two variances are sometimes called the between-group variability and within group variability. The within group variability is also known as the error variance, because it is the variation that we cannot readily account for in the study design, being based on random differences in our samples, and should be as small as possible. However, researchers hope that the between group, or the effect variance, is the result of the research condition or treatment, which should be

large if there is a significant difference. Thus, one can compare these two estimates of variance using the F test.

Demographics

As an adjunct, the demographic variables will be analysed in relation to the withdrawal behavioural constructs by the use of Multiple Analysis Of Variance (MANOVA) with the SPSS program.

In comparison with ANOVA, which can only be used in situations in which there is one dependant variable, MANOVA is designed to look at several dependant variables simultaneously, and so is a multivariate test. Thus, MANOVA incorporates information about several outcome measures and, therefore, informs as to whether groups of subjects can be distinguished by a combination of scores on several different measures. Put simply, MANOVA compares more than one observation in three or more groups of data (Field, 2005). This reflects the analysis adopted by peer literature in social sciences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996 and Jackson, 2005).

For statistical brevity, two separate MANOVA analyses will be employed in the present study to test, firstly, the demographics in relation to the employees' reports for self, low morale, and the five withdrawal behaviour, and secondly, the demographics in relation to employees' reports for others, low morale, and the five withdrawal behaviours.

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS AND DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

A total of 6,000 questionnaires were distributed throughout the six government departments. In total, 702 questionnaires were returned, which resulted in a response rate of 12%. Forty-seven responses were eliminated due to missing data. Therefore, the sample size for testing the hypotheses in this study was 655, which constituted an 11% response rate of the surveys distributed. Table 5.1 presents the profile of the respondents with regard to age, gender, education and employment position. There was an even distribution of ages across the sample population, except that of the under 20's age group, where no respondents participated in the study.

There were 179 (27.3%) respondents aged between 21 and 30 years, 138 (21.1%) of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 years, 205 (31.3%) of the respondents were aged between 41 and 50 years, and 133 (20.3%) of the respondents were aged over 51 years.

With respect to the gender distribution of the sample, 255 (38.9%) were male and 400 (61.1%) were female. Respondents with a formal university education totalled 337 (51.5%), and respondents with no university degree totalled 318 (48.5%). With regards to the distribution of employment positions within the organisation, a total of 46 (7.0%) were senior management, 104 (15.9%) were management, 411 (62.7%) were staff with more than 3 years of working experience, and 94 (14.4%) were staff with less than 3 years of working experience.

Table 5.1 Demographic characteristics of all respondents (n = 655)

Characteristics	Frequency	%
Age		
Under 20 years	0	0
Between 21 and 30 years	179	27.3
Between 31 and 40 years	138	21.1
Between 41 and 50 years	205	31.3
Over 51 years	133	20.3
Gender		
Male	255	38.9
Female	400	61.1
Education		
University degree	337	51.5
No university degree	318	48.5
Employment Position		
Senior Management	46	7.0
Management	104	15.9
Staff (more than 3 years of working experience)	411	62.7
Staff (less than 3 years of working experience)	94	14.4

The second Table 5.2 presents the demographic characteristics for only the low morale respondents, which represented the sample population that was utilised for testing the hypotheses. The low morale sample did not contain any high morale individuals, giving a final total of 266 subjects, which were analysed in the present study. Table 5.2 represents the frequency and percentages for the various demographic groups.

With respect to the categorisation of age of the low morale individuals, the younger population was comprised of 111 (41.7 %) subjects, and the older population consisted of 155 subjects (58.3%). With regards to gender, there were 92 (34.6%) male subjects, and 174 (65.4%) female subjects. Low morale individuals with a degree accounted for 118 (44.4%) of subjects in the sample, whereas persons with no degree qualification made up 148 (55.6%) of subjects in the sample. Additionally, the low morale sample was comprised of 49 (18.4%) persons who occupied management positions, compared with 217 (81.6%) persons who occupied staff positions.

Table 5.2 Demographic characteristics of low morale respondents (n = 266)

Characteristics	Frequency	%
Age		
Younger group (21-40)	111	41.7
Older group (41 and above)	155	58.3
Gender		
Male	92	34.6
Female	174	65.4
Education		
University degree	118	44.4
No university degree	148	55.6
Employment Position		
Management	49	18.4
Staff	217	81.6

Chi-square tests were used to determine if the distributions of the four variables for the low morale sample were representative of the total sample. The results of which are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Chi-square tests on the low morale sample (n = 266)

Demographics	Observed n	Expected n	Chi-square	df	Asymp. Sig
Gender	Male (92) Female (174)	Male (103.5) Female (162.5)	2.082	1	.149
Position	Management (49) Staff (217)	Management (60.9) Staff (205.1)	3.022	1	.082
Age	Young (111) Old (155)	Young (128.7) Old (137.3)	4.739	1	.029*
Education	Yes Degree (118) No Degree (148)	Yes Degree (137.0) No Degree (129.0)	5.428	1	.020*

Note: * Chi-square values were significant at $p < 0.05$

Two of the chi-square tests comparing the low morale sample with that of the total sample for the demographic variables were non-significant. These were gender and position. The chi-square for gender (2.082 with 1 degree of freedom) was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The chi-square for position (3.022 with 1 degree of freedom) was also not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

Alternatively, the chi-squares for education and for age were significant. The chi-square for education (5.428 with 1 degree of freedom) was statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. The chi-square for age (4.739 with 1 degree of freedom) was also statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

HYPOTHESES TESTING

The hypotheses were tested by using several statistical methods. The statistical method used for hypothesis one was Paired-t Test Analysis (Figure 5.1). Hypothesis two was tested by the use of Principal Axis Factor Analyses (Figures 5.2 and 5.3, and Table 5.4). Thirdly, hypothesis three was tested with a Factorial Repeated Measures ANOVA (two way) (Figure 5.4). Finally, the overall demographics of the study were tested using MANOVA analysis (Figures 5.5-5.10, and Tables 5.5 and 5.6). A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested is presented in Table 5.7.

Hypothesis one

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others.

Hypothesis one investigated the relationship between employees with low morale and their intent to withdraw labour (perform minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) compared with that of their perception of their colleagues behavioral intentions (under low morale conditions) in the workplace. All the five withdrawal behaviours were analysed using the paired-sample t test, and are subsequently reported as tests numbered 1 through to 5 (for all of hypothesis one's tests, refer to Figure 5.1).

Hypothesis one (test 1) minimal work - self versus others results:

The paired-sample t test which compared employees self-ratings of intention to perform minimal work (M = 2.78, SD = 1.25) with their ratings for what their colleagues intentions would be under the same circumstances (M = 4.03, SD = 1.09), indicated that there was a significant difference in how they rated and perceived themselves, compared with others (t = -14.265, $p < 0.001$). This demonstrated that under low morale conditions, people significantly under-reported their own intentions to perform minimal work compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to perform minimal work. Thus, hypothesis one (test one) was strongly supported by the data.

Hypothesis one (test 2) lateness - self versus others results:

The paired-sample t test which compared employees self-ratings of intention to be late (M = 2.10, SD = 1.26) with their ratings for what their colleagues intentions would be under the same low morale circumstances (M = 3.79, SD = 1.22), indicated that there was a significant difference in how they rated and perceived themselves compared with others (t = -18.433, $p < 0.001$). This result demonstrated that when morale was low, people significantly under-reported their own intentions to be late to work compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to be late to work. Hypothesis one (test 2) was also strongly supported by the data.

Hypothesis one (test 3) absenteeism - self versus others results:

The paired-sample t test which compared employees self-ratings of intention to be absent (M = 2.32, SD = 1.41) with their ratings for what their colleagues intentions would be under the same low morale circumstances (M = 4.08, SD = 1.09) indicated that there was a significant difference in how they rated and perceived themselves compared with others (t = -19.710, $p < 0.001$). This indicated that when experiencing low morale, people significantly under-reported their own intentions to be absent from work, when compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to be absent from work. Hypothesis one (test 3) was also strongly supported by the data.

Hypothesis one (test 4) transferring within the organisation - self versus others results:

The paired-sample t test which compared employees self-ratings of intention to transfer within the organisation (M = 3.36, SD = 1.42) with their ratings for what their colleagues intentions would be under the same low morale circumstances (M = 3.68, SD = 1.28) demonstrated that there was a significant difference in how they rated and perceived themselves compared with others (t = -3.272, $p < 0.001$). This indicated that when experiencing low morale, people significantly under-reported their own intentions to transfer, when compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to transfer as a workplace option. Hypothesis one (test 4) was also strongly supported by the data.

Hypothesis one (test 5) exiting the organisation - self versus others results

The paired-sample t test which compared employees self-ratings of intention to exit the organisation (M = 2.86, SD = 1.59) with their ratings for what their colleagues intentions would be under the same low morale circumstances (M = 2.69, SD = 1.46), demonstrated that there was no significant difference between how they rated and perceived themselves, compared with others (t = -1.541, $p > 0.05$). In order words, there was no significant difference between employees' own behavioural intentions with respect to exiting the organisation, compared

with their perceptions of their co-workers intentions under the same low morale conditions. Thus, hypothesis one (test 5) was not supported by the data.

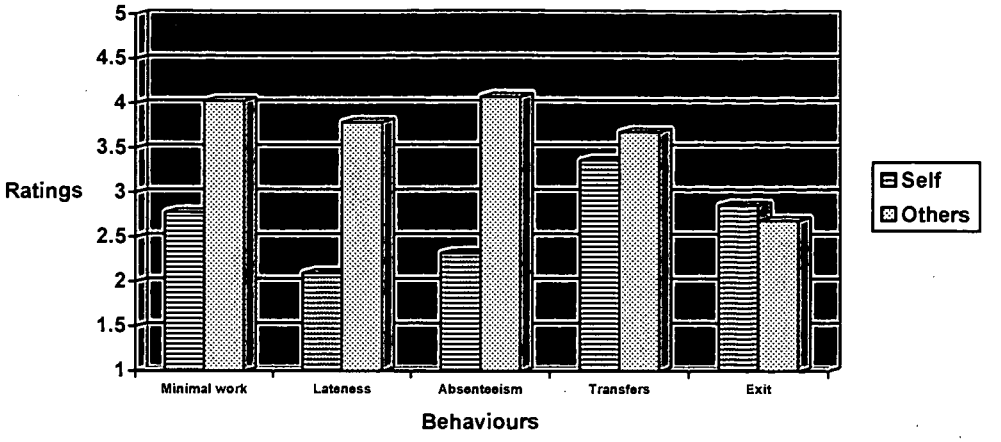

Figure 5.1 Withdraw behaviours – self versus others

Hypothesis two

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others.

Hypothesis two aimed to establish whether or not two factors of intention to withdraw labour (covert and overt constructs of behaviour) would emerge from the employee's own self-reports, or from their reports for others. Note that the covert construct = minimal work, lateness and absenteeism; and the overt construct = transfers within the organisation and exiting the organisation. Using Factor and Reliability Analysis, hypothesis two was assessed against the employees self-reports (test 1), and for the employees reports for others (test 2). The purpose of these two factor analyses was to establish if any factors emerged for the withdrawal behaviours in question.

Hypothesis two (test 1) withdrawal behaviours - self-report results

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) Analysis was used to determine whether factors emerged from the selected withdrawal behaviour items in the self-reports for individuals.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic is a discerning test for sampling adequacy, and shows the proportion of variance in variables that might be accounted for by the underlying variables. The KMO test statistic was calculated for the survey data (withdrawal behaviours for self), which gave a value of 0.644. It should be noted that levels greater than 0.5 indicate statistical acceptability for factoring (Kaiser, 1974), and that a level of 1.0 is ideal (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995, p374). Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests for the presence of unequal covariance's among the variables, was also statistically significant, F (10) = 227.417, $p < 0.001$, indicating that the matrix in question was factorable.

Initially, the PAF results suggested two factors, based on eigenvalues greater than 1 (Hair *et al.,* 1995, pp375-379). However, after extraction, only one factor retained an eigenvalue greater than 1. This first factor accounted for 31.542 per cent of the variance in the solution after extraction (eigenvalue = 1.577), whilst the second factor (eigenvalue = .675) accounted for 13.510 per cent of the variance. An examination of the factor-loading matrix indicated that three items ('minimal work', 'lateness' and 'absenteeism' behaviours) loaded above 0.4 on the first factor, which is the minimum adequate factor loading level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). One item ('exiting the organisation') loaded on the second factor, with a value of 0.736. The behaviour of 'transferring within the organisation' failed to load on either factor. Refer to Figure 5.2 below.

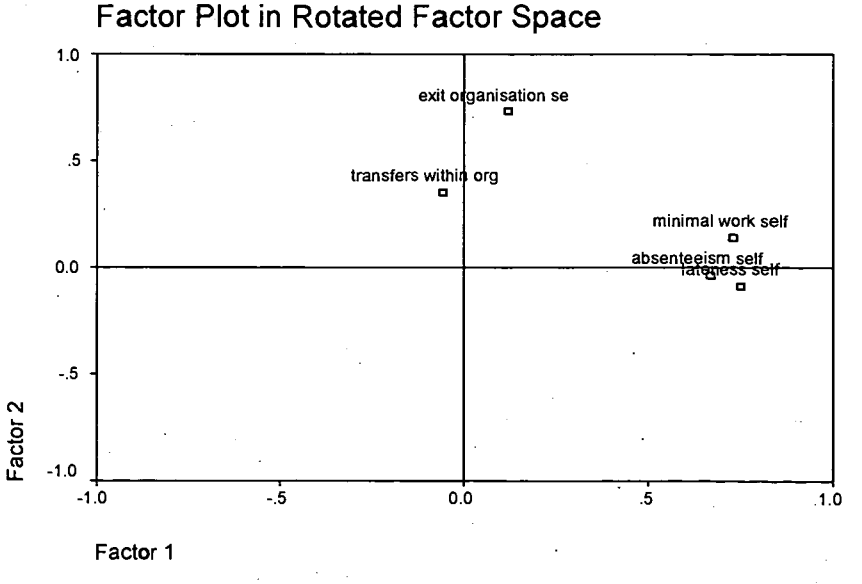

Figure 5.2 Factor plot for the 'self-reports' withdrawal behaviours.

Therefore, the results indicate that the behaviours of 'minimal work', 'lateness' and 'absenteeism' formed a single factor solution. 'Exiting the organisation' loaded on a second (separate) factor, whilst 'transferring within the organisation' did not load on either of the two factors found. Thus, it appears from the employee self-reports that a covert factor construct exists, as hypothesised. Whilst a second factor did appear, it seemed that an overt factor construct did not form as hypothesised, and that the behaviours of 'transferring' and 'exiting' appeared to form separate entities to themselves, and that of the covert factor construct.

Reliability analysis was determined for the above factor analysis results. The internal consistency of each factor was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. This is a measure of the average correlation of each item with all the other items within the factor. The covert factor items showed a high level of internal reliability, whereby the covert factor items (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) formed a highly reliable scale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .7532$).

Hypothesis two (test 2) withdrawal behaviours - reports for others results

A second Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) analysis was conducted, this time determining whether factors emerged from the selected withdrawal behaviour items in the reports for others. The KMO test statistic was again calculated for the survey data (withdrawal behaviours for others), which gave a value of 0.702, indicating statistical acceptability for factoring. Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity was also statistically significant $F\ (10) = 435.170$, $p < .000$, also indicating that the matrix in question was factorable.

Using the same criteria as previously outlined, two factors were extracted. The first factor accounted for 42.601 per cent of the variance in the solution after extraction (eigenvalue = 2.130), while the second factor only accounted for 9.660 per cent (eigenvalue = .483).

The initial factor-loading matrix again revealed that the three items (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism behaviours) significantly loaded on the first factor at 0.78 or above. Only one item (transferring within the organisation) significantly loaded on the second factor at a value of greater than 0.5. However, in contrast to

the results for the reports for self analysis, exiting the organisation failed to load on either factor when examining the results for the reports for others. Refer to Figure 5.3 below.

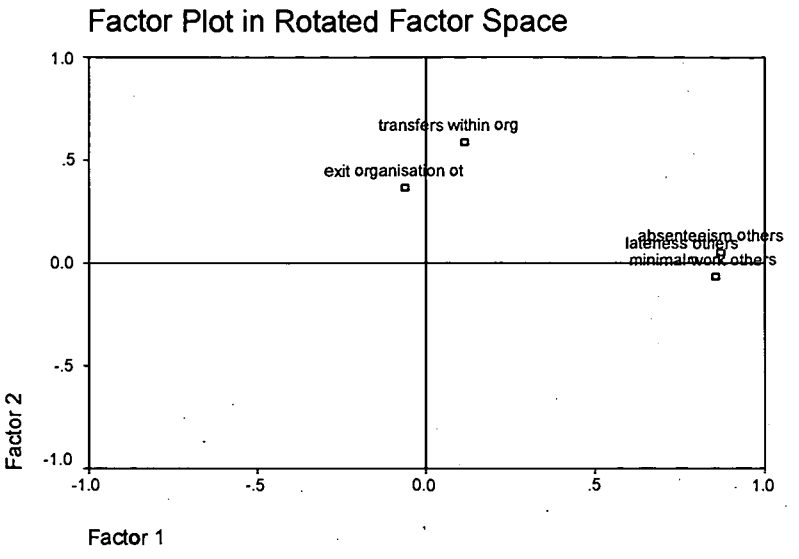

Figure 5.3 Factor plot for the 'reports for others' withdrawal behaviours.

Similarly to the reports for self data, the results from the reports for others indicated that the behaviours of 'minimal work', 'lateness' and 'absenteeism' also formed a single factor solution. This adds further support to the validity regarding the set of items (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism behaviours) forming a covert construct, suggesting that employees views on these behaviours are similar when reporting on behaviours for self and when reporting on their perceptions of their colleagues behaviours. In other words, regardless of whether an employee is rating their own or their colleague's behaviours, it seems that the covert behaviours always factored together.

Tests of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were again conducted to assess the reliability of each of the scales used regarding participants' scores for the reports for others. The Cronbach's alpha result also demonstrated that the covert factor items (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) formed a highly reliable scale of (a = .8715).

Table 5.4 presents the summary statistics of the data, the item loadings, the eigenvalues, and the percentage of variance. These results provided evidence of reliability for the covert construct from the principal factor analysis.

Table 5.4 PFA for reports for withdrawal behaviours for self and others

Self-reports of withdrawal behavioural variables	**Item loading**	**Eigenvalues**	**% of variance**
Minimal work	.744	1.577 for this factor (covert) (including all three variables)	31.542% for this factor (covert).
Lateness	.733		
Absenteeism	.658		
Transferring within the organisation	Failed to load on either factors	N/A	N/A
Exiting the organisation	.709	.675 for this variable	13.510% for this variable
Reports for others in withdrawal behavioural variables	**Item loading**	**Eigenvalues**	**% of variance**
Minimal work	.877	2.130 for this factor (covert) (including all three variables)	42.601% for this factor (covert).
Lateness	.844		
Absenteeism	.785		
Transferring within the organisation	.579	.483 for this variable	9.660% for this variable
Exiting the organisation	Failed to load on either factors	N/A	N/A

Hypothesis three

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

Hypothesis three: covert and overt behaviours - self versus others results

The data from the factor analysis for hypothesis two indicated that there was support for a covert factor emerging from the withdrawal behaviours under investigation, however an overt factor was not found from the results of hypothesis two. Instead, the behaviours of transfers and exiting the organisation (which were initially hypothesised to be similar overt behaviours, and thus might group as an overt factor) diverged as two separate variables. Thus, the participants viewed these behaviours as being separate from each other, and entirely separate from that of the covert behaviours.

Hypothesis three aimed to determine whether or not a positive or negative interaction would be found when employees self-reported their behaviours with respect to covert and overt factors, as compared with their reports for others. This hypothesis was tested by the application of Factorial Repeated Measures ANOVA (two-way) analysis to both the self-reports and reports for others (with respect to the withdrawal behaviours as previously mentioned). As the overt factor construct did not emerge from hypothesis two, the behaviours of transfers and exiting the organisation were treated as separate variables to one another, in conjunction with the covert factor construct, when the analysis was performed.

A two-way (2 x 3) Repeated Measures ANOVA found that there was a significant difference between reports for self and reports for others F (1, 265) = 89.08, $p<0.001$. Additionally there was a significant difference between the behaviours of the covert factor, transferring and exiting the organisation F (2, 530) = 38.42, $p<0.001$. There was also a significant interaction effect between the employees' reported perceptions and their behaviours F (2, 530) = 94.21, $p < 0.001$.

Pairwise comparisons revealed that employees had the perception that their own likelihood of enacting the withdrawal behaviours (M = 2.87, SE = 0.06) was significantly lower compared with their perceptions concerning the likelihood that their colleagues would enact the same withdrawal behaviours (M = 3.45, SE = 0.05); $p < 0.001$. In regards to the type of behaviours exhibited, employees had the perception that exiting the organisation would occur significantly less so as a behaviour (M = 2.77, SE = 0.76) compared with exhibiting the covert behaviours (M = 3.18, SE = 0.05) or transferring within the organisation (M = 3.52, SE = 0.08); $p < 0.001$.

Thus hypothesis three was strongly supported, in that employees' self-reports of behavioural intent were likely to rate transferring and exiting the organisation higher than the covert behaviours, and that the reports for others were likely to rate covert behaviours higher than transferring and exiting the organisation.

As the results indicated, an overt factor group failed to emerge, and the behaviours of transfers and exiting the organisation remained as separate variables from one another. Despite not forming an overt behavioural factor as such, the relationship between these two behaviours in relation to the covert behavioural factor remained as hypothesised. Firstly, employees had the perception that they themselves were more likely to transfer and exit before they would enact covert behaviours in the workplace. Secondly, employees also perceived that their colleagues were more likely to enact the covert behaviours in the workplace before transferring or exiting the particular department. Figure 5.4 below illustrates a clear description of the above findings.

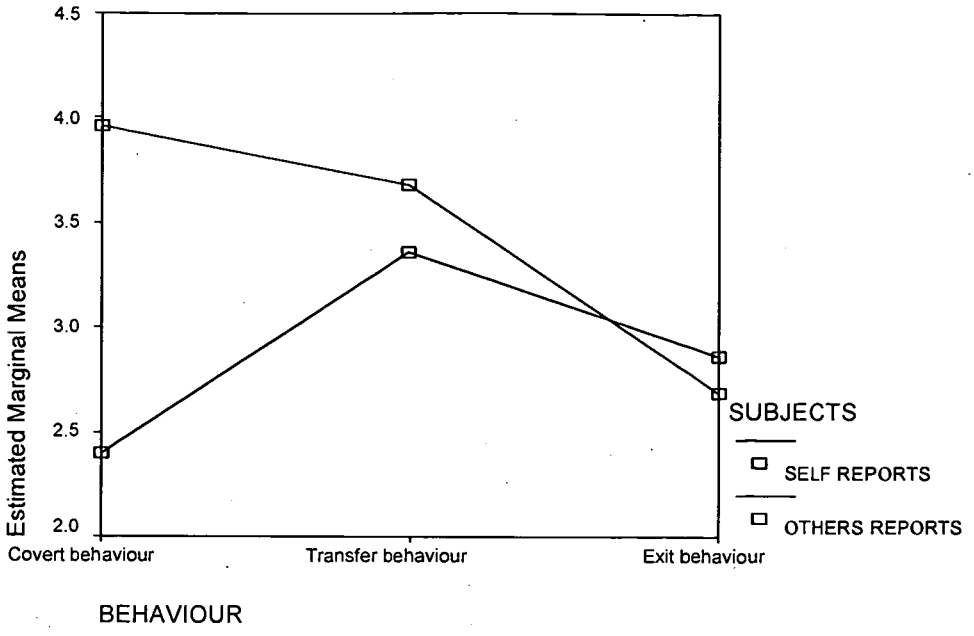

Figure 5.4 Withdrawal behaviours - self-reports versus reports for others

DEMOGRAPHICS IN RELATION TO WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS

The last investigation of the present study was concerned with determining whether or not there were any relationships between the withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, transferring within the organisation and exiting the organisation) and the demographic data (age, gender, education and employment position). This test was not a main focus of the current research; its purpose was to establish if there were any similarities between the findings of the present study regarding the withdrawal behaviours examined, with that of the wider literature. These relationships were tested using Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for both the employee's self-reports and employee's reports for others with regards to the withdrawal behaviours. The first MANOVA which tested the employee's self-reports against the five withdrawal behaviours and their demographics resulted in only one significant finding, as illustrated below.

A significant relationship between education, position and absenteeism was identified, F (1,247) = 4.754, p = .030. It was found that employees at general staff level with a degree (M = 2.081, SE = .149) rated their own likelihood for

absenteeism as being lower than those at management level with a degree (M = 2.412, SE = .409). On the other hand, managers with no degree (M = 1.822, SE = 0.335) indicated that their likelihood to be absent was significantly less compared with those general staff with no degree (M = 2.674, SE = 0.142). Despite this significant finding between education, position and absenteeism, these employee groups scores were all reported with mean values of less than three, meaning that these groups of employees perceived themselves as not enacting this behaviour (absenteeism) under conditions of low morale. Refer to Figure 5.5 below.

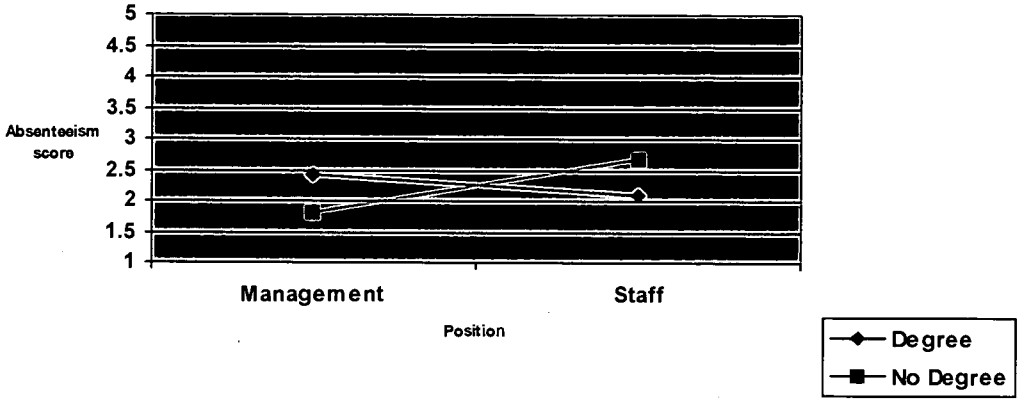

Figure 5.5 Absenteeism - self-reports for managers versus staff, with regard to education (two-way interaction)

The second MANOVA tested the employee's reports for others against the five withdrawal behaviours and the demographics variables. This test resulted in seven significant findings as reported and illustrated in the figures and tables below.

The first significant finding regarding the reports for others concerned the relationship between position and minimal work performed, F (1,247) = 4.721, p = .031. It was shown from the employee ratings that general staff (M = 4.082, SE = .079) perceived their colleagues as more likely to perform minimal work under conditions of low morale, compared with managers perceptions of their colleagues (M = 3.565, SE = .212). Additionally, the mean scores for both the managers and staff reports were above three, indicating that both groups felt that the behaviour of minimal work was likely to be displayed by their colleagues when they experienced conditions of low morale. Refer to Figure 5.6 below.

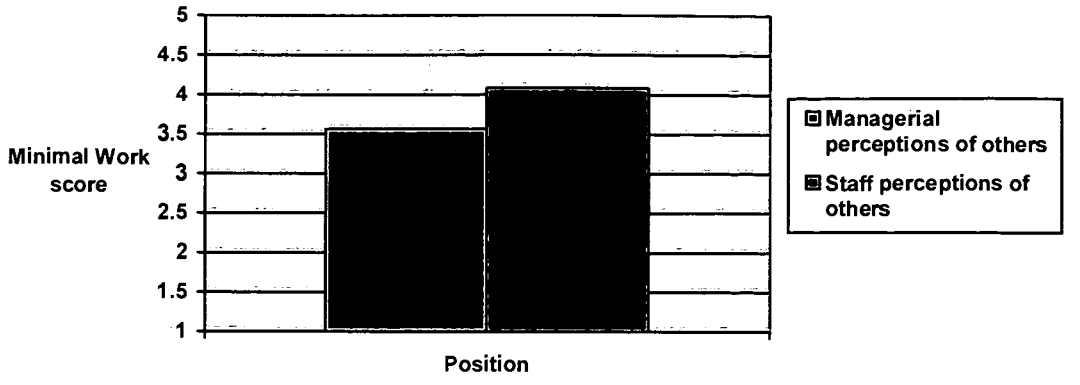

Figure 5.6 Minimal work – managerial perception of others versus staff perception of others (main effect)

A second relationship between education, position and minimal work was also found to be significant F (1,247) = 5.509, p = .020. The results indicated that both managers with a degree (M = 3.921, SE = .316) and general staff with a degree (M = 4.031, SE = .115) had the perception that their colleagues were likely to perform minimal work under conditions of low morale. Additionally, general staff with no degree (M = 4.133, SE = .110) perceived their colleagues as being more significantly likely to perform minimal work under the conditions of low morale, compared with the perceptions of managers with no degree (M = 3.091, SE = .259). Refer to Figure 5.7 below.

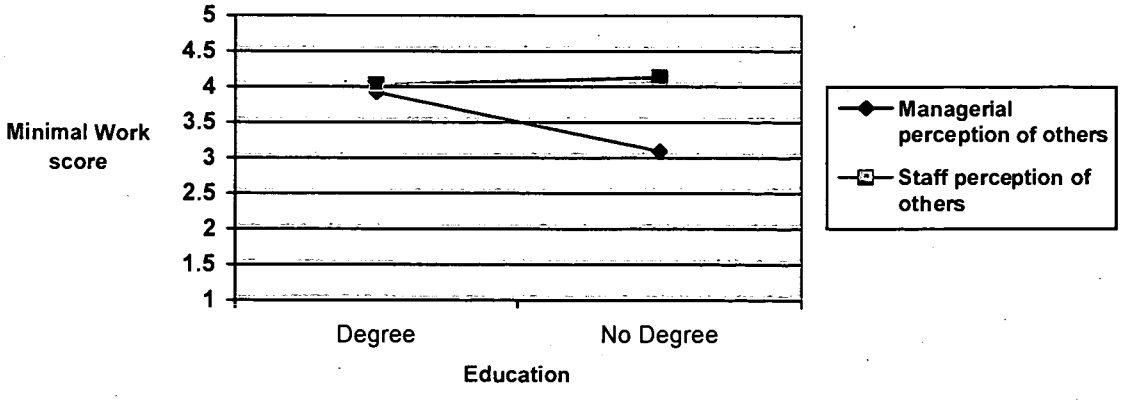

Figure 5.7 Minimal work – employees' perceptions of others with regard to position and education (two-way interaction)

The third significant finding concerned the relationship between employee position and absenteeism F (1,247) = 10.499, p = .001. It was found that general staff perceived their colleagues as being more significantly likely to enact absence behaviours (M = 4.154, SE = .075), compared with managers perceptions of their colleagues (M = 3.376, SE = .201) under the condition of low morale. Refer to Figure 5.8 below.

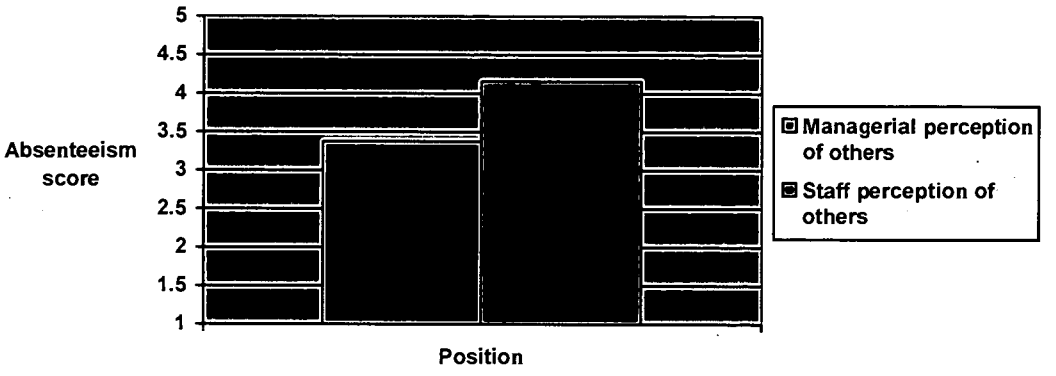

Figure 5.8 Absenteeism – managerial perception of others versus staff perception of others (main effect)

A fourth significant interaction was demonstrated between education, position and absenteeism, F (1,247) =12.370, p = .001. It was found that both managers with a degree (M = 3.843, SE = .300) and general staff with a degree (M = 3.992, SE = .109) rated their colleagues as likely to be absent from work when experiencing conditions of low morale. However, managers with no degree had the perception that their colleagues were significantly less likely to be absent from work (M = 2.754, SE = .246), compared with the reported perceived absence rates for general staff with no degree (M = 4.315, SE = .104) under the same conditions of low morale. Refer to Figure 5.9 below.

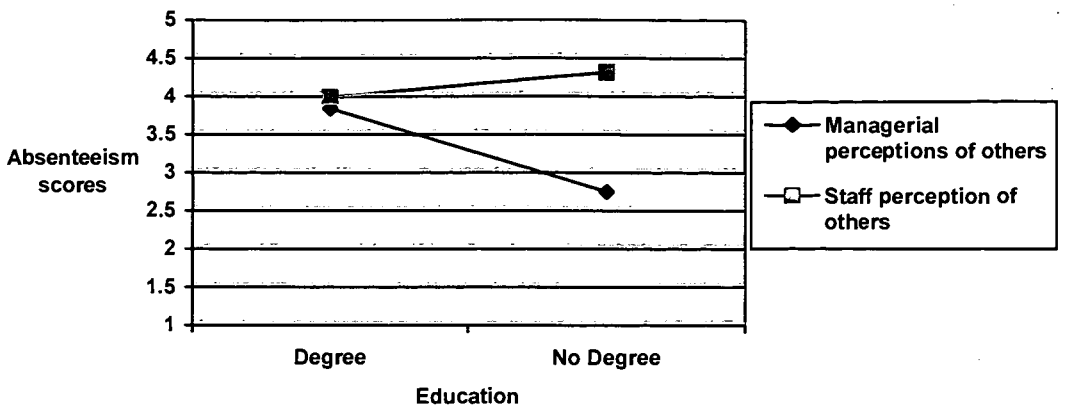

Figure 5.9 Absenteeism – employees' perception of others with regard to position and education (two-way interaction)

The fifth significant relationship occurred between the variables of gender, education, position and transfers within the organisation, F (1,247) = 4.893, p = .028. It was found that males in management with a degree perceived their colleagues as being significantly less likely to transfer (M = 2.864, SE = .651), compared with male general staff with no degree (M = 4.064, SE = .230) under the conditions of low morale. Additionally, those male general staff with no degrees (M = 4.064, SE = .230) perceived their colleagues as being significantly more likely to transfer under conditions of low morale, when compared with either the males in management with no degree (M = 3.333, SE = .415), or those male staff with degrees (M = 3.072, SE = .218).

On the other hand, when asking about employees' perceptions of their colleagues' behaviours, a propensity to transfer under conditions of low morale was observed across all the female groups (i.e. their mean rating scores were greater than 3). Although the same trends as the males were observed for the females, there was no statistical significant difference found in their likelihood to transfer under the conditions of low morale, when comparing females in management with a degree (M = 3.375, SE = .392) with either the female general staff with a degree (M = 3.663, SE = .170), the females in management with no degree (M = 3.475, SE = .418), or the female general staff with no degree (M = 3.859, SE = .130). Refer to Table 5.5 below.

Withdrawal behaviour	Gender	Education	Position	Mean score	Standard error
Transfer	Male	Degree	Management	2.864	.651
			Staff	3.072	.218
		No Degree	Management	3.333	.415
			Staff	4.064	.230
	Female	Degree	Management	3.375	.392
			Staff	3.663	.170
		No Degree	Management	3.475	.418
			Staff	3.859	.130

Table 5.5 Transfer - employees' perception of others with regard to gender, education and position (three-way interaction)

The sixth finding highlighted a significant effect between gender, education and exiting the organisation when examining the employee reports for others, F (1,247) =10.499, p =. 001. It was shown that males with no degree (M = 2.327, SE = .226) had the perception that their colleagues were less likely to exit the organisation when compared with those males with a degree (M = 2.820, SE = .376) under the conditions of low morale. A reverse relationship was found for female employees. Females with a degree (M = 2.610, SE = .234) had the perception that their colleagues were less likely to exit the organisation compared with females with no degree (M = 2.895, SE = .240) under conditions of low morale. Note that regardless of gender, employees' perceptions of others' behaviours indicated that their colleagues would be less likely to exit the organisation when experiencing low morale (i.e. all groups mean scores were less than 3). Refer to Figure 5.10 below.

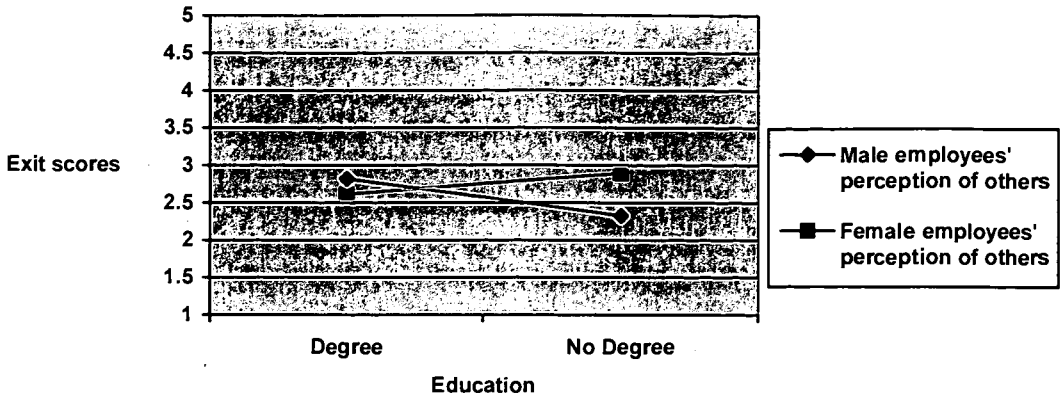

Figure 5.10 Exit – employees' perception of others with regard to gender and education (two-way interaction)

A seventh significant relationship from the reports for others was identified between the parameters of education, position, age and exiting the organisation, F (1.247) = 13.248, p = .000. It was demonstrated that younger employees in management with a degree had the perception that their colleagues were less likely to exit the organisation (M = 2.333, SE = .787), compared with older employees in management with a degree (M = 2.577, SE = .267), under the conditions of low morale. Additionally younger staff members with a degree perceived that their colleagues would be significantly less likely to exit the organisation (M = 2.358, SE = .218), compared with older staff members with a degree (M = 3.592, SE = .209) under those same low morale conditions.

Younger employees in management with no degree also perceived their colleagues as being significantly less likely to exit the organisation (M = 2.000, SE = .682) compared with older employees in management with no degree (M = 3.544, SE = .380) when experiencing low morale conditions. On the other hand, older staff members no degree perceived that their colleagues were significantly less likely to exit the organisation (M = 2.077, SE = .166) compared with younger staff members with no degree (M = 2.660, SE = .236) under low morale conditions (see Table 5.6 below).

Withdrawal behaviour	Education	Position	Age	Mean score	Standard error
Exit	Degree	Management	Young	2.333	.787
			Old	2.577	.267
		Staff	Young	2.358	.218
			Old	3.592	.209
	No Degree	Management	Young	2.000	.682
			Old	3.544	.380
		Staff	Young	2.660	.236
			Old	2.077	.166

Table 5.6 Exit - employees' perception of others with regard to education, position and age (three-way interaction)

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the statistical analyses of the hypotheses. Paired t-tests were conducted to test the first hypothesis. Exploratory Factor Analysis was employed to test hypothesis two, followed by reliability and validity tests of the covert construct, and that of the other variables which were examined. Factorial Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA: two-way) was examined for hypothesis three. A final analysis entailed the testing of the demographic variables for the sample population, which were assessed by MANOVA. The results indicated support for all three hypotheses, in part (Refer to Table 5.7 below).

Hypothesis	Results
H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others.	Partially Supported
H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others.	Partially Supported
H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.	Supported

Table 5.7 Summaries of hypotheses testing

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

After a review of the pertinent literature, it appeared that four major areas of research appeared to be related to one another; however, the links between them had not yet been fully or empirically established. The present thesis aimed to expand on these gaps in the literature, by bringing these ideas and theoretical formulations together to form the more global concept of withdrawal of labour under conditions of low morale.

Hanisch & Hulin, (1990, 1991) and Hanisch *et al.* (1998) advocated the development of multi-item behavioural constructs, and studied behavioural variables collectively. Laczo & Hanisch (1999) furthered those ideas and forwarded an assumption that internal transfers belonged to the category of work withdrawal behaviour, with turnover; however, they did not empirically test this argument. Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) argued for the study of withdrawal behaviours to be conducted independently, although they were not averse to the proposals by Hanisch and colleagues, that the concept of using multi-item behavioural constructs had merit. Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994) proposed the concept that employee's engaged self-serving bias and ego protective mechanisms when enacting unfavourable withdrawal behaviours. However, the authors only tested those theories against the single withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism.

It has been established that attitudes predicted behaviour through intention. Azjen & Madden (1986) demonstrated that intention was a good proxy for actual behavioural assessments. Additionally, Dalton and Todor (1993) established that there were major issues with obtaining actual record based data when investigating withdrawal behaviours. Furthermore, Johns (1994b) and Koslowsky (2000) proposed that employee self-reports were valid indicators to use when actual records were difficult to obtain. Again, research has not empirically tested intention and self-report measures together against multiple withdrawal behaviours.

Johnsrud and colleagues proposed that morale represented an "umbrella" notion, which included many facets of employee satisfaction with the work environment.

Additionally, they advocated the use of morale studies in the workplace, as they found that morale was a predictor of intent to engage in leaving behaviour. However, the authors did not test low morale against other withdrawal behaviours. Thus, the present thesis uniquely aimed to collectively incorporate these broad organisational theories together to investigate multiple withdrawal behaviours in a broad sample population. The conglomeration of these theories and behaviours will constitute the present research's concept of 'withdrawal of labour'.

Thus, the purpose of this study was to firstly compare the employees' self-reports against the employees' reports for others for the five withdrawal of labour behaviours. The second part of this study aimed to investigate whether or not covert and overt factors of behavioural intention emerged when employees experienced low morale. The third aim of this study was to ascertain if there was an impact of self-serving biases with respect to covert and overt behavioral factors. The hypotheses of the study are outlined below:

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others,

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others,

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

An additional element of this study investigated the relationship between the five withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation) and employee demographics (age, gender, education and position) to identify if any similarities existed with that of the wider literature.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Hypothesis one

H1 Employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours will be lower than those reported for others.

Hypothesis one (test 1) minimal work - self versus others discussion

Using the same statistical approach as presented in the surveyed literature (Johnsrud, 1996 and Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits, 2001), the paired t-test found that employees self-ratings of intentions to perform minimal work were significantly lower compared with their reports regarding their colleagues intentions to perform minimal work. This indicated that when morale was low, employees under-reported their intentions to perform minimal work, compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to perform minimal work, which were over reported.

This result may be explained by an extrapolation of the findings of Johns (1994a), in which he explored self-reports versus reports for others with respect to absenteeism behaviour. Whilst Johns (1994a) did not specifically examine the behaviour of minimal work in his study, the principles of an ego-protective theory as argued from Johns' (1994a) results could explain the current findings for the behaviour of minimal work.

The results from hypothesis one, test (1), suggested strong support for the previous claims made by Johns (1994a), whereby self-serving biases confer an ego protective mechanism, in which deviant or negative withdrawal behaviours were perceived as occurring less frequently in oneself, as compared with others. Johns (1994a) further noted that self-serving biases were also potentially useful in predicting individual perceptions of withdrawal behaviours. This can be understood as being the situation whereby a person's real intentions might be elucidated through their reflections regarding others behaviours.

As an extension of the individual's ego-protective theory as argued by Johns (1994a), employees may also think of themselves as 'saints' and their co-workers

as 'sinners' (Epley & Dunning, 2000). Hence when given the opportunity to report on the perceived negative behaviours of their colleagues, participants may feel an obligation to 'out' their colleagues' unethical behaviours. Employees may also see themselves as acting more ethically than their colleagues, as shown by Tyson (1992). As such, these concepts may explain the current research findings, whereby employees reported lower scores for themselves, and apparently inflated scores regarding their perceptions of their colleagues' intentions to perform minimal work. Although Tyson's (1992) concept regarding the ethical tendencies of participants is an interesting facet to consider, this was also not explored in the current research.

Interestingly, Epley & Dunning (2000) observed that people were much less accurate when predicting their own behaviour than when predicting the behaviours of others. "Participants consistently and grossly over-estimated the likelihood that they themselves would act in a selfless or altruistic manner, whereas the predictions made about others tended to converge more closely with reality" (p873). In other words, people may be less accurate when reporting their own behaviours, and it was possible that their real behavioural patterns are reflected in their reports for their colleagues. Although the findings of the current research found support for the patterns regarding predictions of behaviours for self and others as outlined in Epley & Dunning (2000), the current study did not explore the concept of altrustism in its research design.

Conversely, an alternative explanation might consider that the employees' reports for self may be reasonably accurate, whereas their reports for others may have been over-estimated (i.e. they may have considered their colleagues in a more negative light). Examination of the skewness and kurtosis scores for the distributions of minimal work for self and minimal work for others indicated that the self reports were more aligned with a normal distribution, whereas it appears that there was a more skewed (to the right) distribution for the reports for others. Since the survey instrument asked employees to estimate their colleagues' behaviours whilst their colleagues were in a low morale frame of mind, this may have skewed their perceptions of their colleagues' behaviours. For example, when answering this question, participants may have thought of an individual in their

workplace who exhibited low morale, and answered this question based on their experience of this person's behaviour, and applied it to all responses.

Westbrook (1980) proposed that morale may be measured in terms of satisfaction with one's work environment, which could include one's co-workers. It has been shown previously that minimal work performed by employees can be the result of low employee satisfaction (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997 and Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Additionally, an employee who feels negativity towards the workplace may gossip about their boss or co-workers (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), or spread untrue rumours about their co-workers (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

A study by Laczo & Hanisch (1999) also found that differing employee groups often did not perceive one another in a positive manner within the same organisation. Thus, it has been observed that under certain circumstances employees conveyed negative attitudes towards their co-workers. Hence, it is not too surprising to have found in the present study's results, that under low morale conditions, employees thought of their colleagues as undertaking more frequent withdrawal behaviours in the workplace when compared with themselves.

It should be noted that the sample used for the present study consisted of low morale individuals exclusively. Thus, such persons with low morale may innately think and report more negatively when asked to rate their colleagues' behavioural intentions, and this may also reflect the differences in the mean scores between the reports for self, and reports for others with respect to the behaviour of minimal work. Additionally, it should be noted that the present research sample was drawn from departments or agencies within the South Australian public sector only. Hence the findings from test (1) could have been influenced by mindsets which may be particular to the public service of South Australia. Hence, employees may have been influenced by the range and availability of workplace options, and also of the work cultures within those organisations.

Overall, test (1) has shown that the self-reports for minimal work were lower than employees' reports for others, and thus the null hypothesis was accepted with respect to minimal work.

Hypothesis one (test 2) lateness - self versus others discussion

The paired t-sample test found that employees' self-ratings of intentions to be late to work were much lower than their reports for their colleagues' intentions to be late. This suggested that when in a low morale frame of mind, people under-reported their intentions to be late to work when compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to be late to work. This again may be due to the fact that individuals are inclined to identify themselves with positive results, and not to identify themselves with negative results as a means of an "ego defensive" behavioural tactic (Tetlock, 1985, p309).

The results from test (2) also indicated support for employees utilising an ego-protective mechanism as argued by Johns (1994a). Whilst Johns (1994a) did not explore lateness behaviour in his research, he did examine reports for self versus reports for others with respect to absenteeism behaviour. Thus, the current research applied this ego-protective mechanism theory to formulate a general explanation for the findings for lateness behaviour, namely that employees under-reported their lateness behaviour compared with their perceptions of their colleagues.

Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits (2001) conducted a similar study to Johns' (1994b) study, whereby instead of absence, they measured the employees own lateness perceptions and compared these against actual organisational records for those participants. Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits (2001) found support for Johns' (1994b) study, in that their results indicated that self-reports of lateness were moderately correlated with the information available from the employees' file. Interestingly, the mean for the former was lower than that for the latter. In other words, they found that employees significantly under-reported their own behaviours compared with the actual organisation records.

Thus, regardless of whether employees compared their own lateness behaviour with their actual employment records (as in Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits, 2001), or with that of their colleagues (as in the present study), it appeared that they underestimated their own lateness behaviour, possibly in order to either consciously or unconsciously distort the truth (Koslowsky & Dishon-Berkovits,

2001) or to protect their own egos. Greenwald (1980) described the phenomenon of ego protection as "one of the best established recent findings in social psychology" (p605), and went so far as to describe the ego as "totalitarian" in its thoroughness. In particular, he reviewed evidence for selective recall and fabrication of memory, both of which could have contributed to biased estimates concerning one's own, and others' withdrawal behaviours.

Thus, in the present study where employees were asked to rate their perceptions regarding their colleagues behaviours, the scores may have been based on their recall of their colleagues past behaviours, which may have distorted the scores for the present findings. Whilst the present study did not investigate the cognitive processes which influence employee decision making, it may be a focus for further research in this area.

Thus, test (2) demonstrated that the self-reports for lateness behaviour were lower than employees' reports for others, and thus the null hypothesis was accepted with respect to lateness behaviour.

Hypothesis one (test 3) absenteeism - self versus others discussion

The paired t-sample test found that self-ratings of intentions to be absent from work were much lower than their reports for colleagues' intentions to be absent from work. This indicated that when morale was low, people under- reported their intentions to be absent from work when compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to be absent from work. This result was consistent with the findings for the previous two behaviours above (minimal work and lateness).

This result was supported by Gioia (1989), who stated that "organizational members engage in (often unconscious) self-serving perceptions of their own performance because such perceptions help them make sense of their organizational experience in a way that maintains a positive concept of themselves and their competencies" (p220). In other words, in keeping with Johns' (1994a) theory, people want to believe that they are less likely to engage in negative behaviours in order to protect their own self-esteem. This, again, may

explain why employees under-reported their own absence behaviours, and over-reported the likelihood of their colleagues engaging in absence behaviour. The findings of the current research also suggested support for the work of Ross (1977), who found that employees viewed their own behaviours as reasonable, sensible and legitimate, as compared with others' behaviours.

Another perspective regarding the findings for self-reported absence considered a cultural model of absenteeism, as proposed by Johns (1987). He suggested that people pegged their own behaviour to that of their work group, and then projected an appropriate occupational estimate. However, this theory did not appear to be supported by the present study's findings, whereby the employee self-reports scores were substantiality lower when compared with their reports for their colleagues. Alternatively, the present study's results indicated support for research by Harrison & Shaffer (1994), who compared reports for self against organisational norms with respect to absenteeism. They found that regardless of the type of attendance, the time interval, types of estimates, or administrative hierarchy, individuals reported having roughly half the absenteeism of the perceived organisational absence norm, which was consistent with the self-serving bias hypothesis first proposed by Johns (1994a). The present research results were in keeping with the findings of Johns' (1994a) study regarding absenteeism and comparative employee reports, which found that the self-reports scores for absenteeism behaviour were lower than the employees' reports for others.

The present study's results regarding the absence behavioural findings may also have been explained by the findings of Tyson (1992), who proposed that persons often believed themselves as acting far more ethically than their peers. However, as the present study did not directly investigate employees' intended ethical behaviours, this remains as an area that warrants further investigation for future research.

Interestingly, Porter & Steers (1973) formed a proposition that the more satisfied an employee was, the less likely the individual was to be absent or resign from the organisation. This was a sentiment also shared by Williams & Milbank (2004) who found that happy employees took much less sick leave than their unhappy co-workers. These studies indicated that there was a strong relationship between job

dissatisfaction and absence, with low morale being a crucial element influencing such an undesirable behaviour.

These behavioural patterns seem in keeping with the results of the present study with respect to the reports for others, where the employees' perceptions indicated that their colleagues would significantly engage in absence behaviours in the workplace when they experienced low morale. Whilst the self reports results may have been influenced as the result of ego protective mechanisms as previously discussed, it would seem that the reports for others indicated support for similar behavioural patterns as proposed by Porter & Steers (1973) and Williams & Milbank (2004), i.e. the employee who has low morale is likely to engage in absence behaviours in the workplace.

Thus, test (3) demonstrated that the self-reports for absence behaviour were lower than employees' reports for others, and thus the null hypothesis was accepted with respect to absence behaviour.

Hypothesis one (test 4) transferring within the organisation - self versus others discussion

The paired t-sample test found that self-ratings of intentions to transfer internally were lower than their reports for colleagues' intentions to transfer internally. This suggested that when morale was low, people under reported their intentions to transfer when compared with their perception of the intentions of their colleagues to transfer as a workplace option. Whilst Johns (1994a) did not explore internal transfers in his research with regard to self-serving biases, he did explore self versus others for absenteeism behaviour. After reviewing the surveyed literature, it appeared that the behaviour of transferring had not previously been empirically tested with respect to the setting of the present research, and as such there have been limited benchmarks against which to compare the present study's findings.

Thus, the present study applied the ego-protective mechanism theory of Johns (1994a) in its formulation of a general explanation for employee transfer behaviour, and of the differences between self and others' reports. The results for the current research established support for Johns (1994a) self-serving bias theory,

which proposed that employees tended to try and protect their own egos. In other words, whilst employees may not have wished to admit that they would transfer from their department if they had low morale, from the results it appeared that they believed that their colleagues would be willing to do so.

Despite the mean scores for self and others behaviours appearing to be convergent, they were still significantly different to one another, with the self scores being less that the scores for others. This may possibly be explained by the fact that employees might be aware that transferring could be a costly behaviour to their departments (both in a person power, and financial sense), and as such it might be seen as a socially less appropriate action to take when they are unhappy with their workplace i.e. an employee who wished to leave may be associated with the analogy of being "a rat leaving a sinking ship".

One point of interest concerned the mean scores for the self and others reports with respect to the behaviour of transferring. Whilst the difference between the means for the self and others scores for the previous three behaviours (minimal work, lateness and absence) were quite divergent, and those self-report scores gave values below three, the mean scores for the self-reports and reports for others for the transferring behaviour converged more closely together. When examining the mean scores for the self reports for all of the withdrawal behaviours examined, it was interesting to note that transfers was the only behaviour which scored a mean value above three (which tended toward the "more likely" measure on the survey scale).

An additional explanation for the findings might simply consider that employees may be more honest concerning their own actions and those of their co-workers in this instance, based on the premise that transferring internally might be seen as a more socially acceptable and desirable workplace option, as compared with the less socially acceptable behaviours of minimal work, lateness and absenteeism. Hence, if transferring out of a situation which an employee feels is unacceptable or causing their low morale was seen as a positive or socially acceptable behaviour amongst their colleagues, then this behaviour may provide an employee with the ability to avoid the social stigma which may be associated with enacting the behaviours of minimal work, lateness and absence in their workplace.

Thus, if there was no social stigma attached with an internal transfer, employees may have been more honest (or less ego protective) in their self-reports for the transferring behavioural scores. Additionally, this might also explain why the mean self and others scores were more convergent compared with the previous three behaviours, and why both scores gave a value greater than three (i.e. more likely). This could be in keeping with the concept from Johns' (1987) study on absenteeism, whereby he suggested that people pegged their own behaviour to that of their work group, and then projected an appropriate occupational estimate. Without the social stigma in reporting such a behaviour (transferring), employees in the present research may have been reporting their self scores more closely with their perceptions of an occupational estimate, hence why both mean scores were more similar, and both gave a value above three.

In contrast to the means for the previous three behaviours, the mean score for transfers was above three, which tended toward the "more likely" side of the survey scale. Dalton & Todor (1987) suggested that although employees may seek alternative employment outside their organisation (i.e. exit the organisation) to reduce unpleasant working circumstances, they might prefer to transfer within the organisation if that option were available. They found that internal transfers within organisations might be beneficial to the employee in that they may not lose their salary or fringe benefits, as opposed to quitting from the organisation entirely. This is possibly the best explanation for the results in the present study with respect to the transferring behaviour. One could suggest that in the context of the sample used for this research (in the South Australian public sector), internal transfers may be a healthier and more realistic option for employees who wish to avoid their workplace due to job dissatisfaction without necessarily losing their government employment permanency and their benefits entirely. This could possibly account for the higher mean scores for transfers for self and transfers for others.

Although the participants indicated in the current survey that internal transfers might be a viable strategy for an employee to use when dissatisfied with an immediate supervisor or current job duties (e.g. having low morale), Dalton & Todor (1987) found that transferring may be a proactive alternative for employees, either in a career growth sense (e.g. promotional opportunities;

Stilwell *et al.*, 1998), or to facilitate change which may alleviate some of their immediate concerns. It has been proposed that transfers may contribute to greater satisfaction and employee commitment (Grusky, 1967; Pruden, 1973; Veiga, 1981 and Brett, 1982), and as a consequence this may have the potential to reduce their intention to leave the organisation altogether (Dalton & Todor, 1987). Whilst the present study investigated employees' perceptions regarding their intentions to perform behaviours under low morale conditions, it did not investigate the reasons behind those intentions. Whilst the above studies highlight several interesting possibilities which might explain the results of the present study, further research would be required to more fully ascertain the rationale behind employees' intentions for the withdrawal behaviours.

A further explanation might consider the possibility that employees may have believed themselves as being more tolerant of unsatisfying workplace conditions and thus less likely to transfer, than their colleagues who they may have believed were less tolerant or less loyal to the relevant department. Ross (1977) argued that employees tended to view their own behaviour as being reasonable, sensible and legitimate when compared with that of their colleagues. Thus, employees may have considered that they had a stronger character compared with that of their colleagues, thus reflecting the lower scores for self compared with the reports for others.

An alternative rationale might consider that certain employees could have felt that they had fewer workplace transfer options compared with some of their colleagues. For example, an employee without a tertiary education may feel that they are more disadvantaged in their options to successfully find alternative employment compared with a colleague who possesses a tertiary qualification, which may afford this person a greater feeling of flexibility or autonomy in their likelihood of finding another job if unsatisfied with their present situation. Thus, certain demographics such as education status may play a role in an explanation for the findings relating to internal transfers behavioural intentions.

Whilst the above points may explain the results for employees' behavioural intentions relating to internal transfers, some are speculative, as the reasoning behind these results have not been fully empirically tested. As such, further testing

is required to gain a deeper understanding as to why these employee behaviours occurred under low morale conditions.

Thus, test (4) demonstrated that the self-reports for the behavioural intention of internal transfers were lower than employees' reports for others, and thus the null hypothesis was accepted with respect to internal transfers behaviour.

Hypothesis one (test 5) exiting the organisation - self versus others discussion

The paired sample t-test demonstrated that the employees' self-ratings of intentions to exit the organisation entirely did not differ from their reports for their colleagues' intentions to exit the organisation. This result indicated that there was no significant difference in how employees rated and perceived themselves compared with their colleagues with respect to the behavioural intent of exiting when experiencing low morale. Thus, it appeared that the phenomenon of an ego-protection mechanism as argued by Johns' (1994a) might not exist for the withdrawal behaviour of exiting the organisation. Equally, no support was found for Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) study, whereby employees under-reported the occurrence of withdrawal behaviours on the self-report indices, and over-reported the scores for the organisational behaviour norms.

A possible explanation for the findings of the present research might be that the participants in the present study did not see the behaviour of exiting the organisation as being a deviant or socially inappropriate behavioural reaction for an individual who experienced dissatisfaction or low morale. Namely, participants might have thought that there would be no dishonour in exiting the organisation if an employee was unhappy in their workplace. Thus, if there was no stigma attached to the reporting of such behaviour, employees may not have felt the need to hide or under-report their true intentions regarding exiting the organisation. Hence this may explain the non-significant findings between the employees' reports for self and their reports for others.

The low mean scores (less than three) found for both the self and others' reports indicated that exiting the organisation would be a less desirable option for employees themselves, and that they also considered that their colleagues would

not enact the behaviour. Whilst exiting the organisation may be a final solution for individuals with low morale as demonstrated by Johnsrud & Rosser (1999a, 2002), the present research found no support for this finding. The results for the present study indicated that despite having low morale, employees were reluctant to exit the organisation. This is in keeping with the past findings of March & Simon (1958), who suggested in their model of turnover that the perceived possibility of intra-organisational transfers would reduce the perceived desirability of leaving the organisation altogether. Dalton & Todor (1987) pointed out that an implication of the proposition by March & Simon (1958) was that the availability of an intra-organisational transfer option for employees might serve the same purpose as leaving the organisation. Namely, that changing jobs (transferring) within organisations may resolve dissatisfaction with one's work as readily as changing organisations (exiting).

Research has also found that job dissatisfaction has repeatedly been identified as the single most important reason as to why employees leave their jobs. Price & Mueller (1981) reported that job dissatisfaction had an "indirect effect on turnover through its direct effect on formation on intent to leave". Johnsrud & Rosser (1999a, 2002) proposed that job dissatisfaction fell under the broader heading of morale. Additionally, the same authors found that morale had a direct impact on intent to leave. However, this may not be the case for the present research public service sample, whereby internal transfers exist as a workplace option. The present research did not support the claims made by Price & Mueller (1981) and Johnsrud & Rosser (1999a, 2002) that employees would exit the organisation if they were unhappy.

The results of the current research indicated (from the mean scores) that employees were in fact less likely to exit the organisation when experiencing low morale. This may be due to the possibility that internal transfers might have been a more appealing workplace option when an individual was dissatisfied with their work situation (i.e. low morale) compared with exiting one's job. For example, from an individual perspective, internal transfers could allow the employee to carry over their long service leave, sick leave, annual leave and superannuation to a new position within the organisation, which is in line with findings of Dalton & Todor (1987). Whilst this is an appealing rationale for the present studies findings,

the underlying reasons behind the participant's intentions were not directly ascertained, and remain as an area for further research.

Alternatively, if an employee exited their job from the South Australian public service entirely, this would result in them losing a majority of their employee benefits. Several crucial benefits include that of government permanency and job security, the loss of which may not be a desirable option for a majority of public servants (Cvijetic, 2000). The explanations for the statistics of the present research are not conclusive, as explanatory research for exiting the organisation has not been elicited.

Thus, test (5) demonstrated that the self-reports for the behavioural intention of exiting were not significantly different from the employees' reports for others, and thus the null hypothesis was rejected with respect to exiting the organisation behaviour.

Summary of hypothesis one

This research investigated the relationship between the five withdrawal behaviours and low morale, specifically comparing employee reports for self and their perceptions for others. Paired t-test analysis was used to quantitatively assess the behaviours separately, rather than testing the behaviours collectively. The rationale for this statistical approach was based on the premise that individual behaviours might contribute a particular portion towards a cumulative withdrawal behavioural score, the significance of which might be lost when one aggregated the individual behavioural scores together. This is a point that has previously been discussed in the literature, whereby Blau (1998) proposed argument for behaviours to be studied separately, rather than as an aggregated entity.

Furthermore, some of the behaviours may dominate statistically (such as minimal work, lateness, absenteeism), whilst some of the other behaviours may not (such as internal transfers and exiting the organisation), as has been demonstrated in the results of the current research. Dominant behaviours would skew an aggregated score, thus the significance of lesser behaviours might be concealed in the aggregation of individual values. Thus, the behaviours were treated as separate

entities until particular groupings might be established, through the use of appropriate statistical tests to verify the validity for grouping. The present research also applied Johns' (1994a) theoretical explanation of self-serving biases for absenteeism, in the determination of whether the phenomenon of "ego-protection" was also observed for absenteeism behaviour, and that of the additional four withdrawal behaviours.

It appeared that hypothesis one supported the general theories from Johns' (1994a), and Harrison & Shaffer's (1994) findings for four of the behaviours under investigation, those being minimal work, lateness, absenteeism and internal transfers. Thus, the concept of self-serving biases (or ego-protective mechanisms) were observed as occurring for those behaviours, whereby employees self-reported intentions to perform those behaviours were statistically significantly lower compared with the scores of their perceptions for their colleagues. However, this relationship was not observed when participants reported their behavioural intentions concerning exiting the organisation, whereby there was no statistical significant difference between the employees self reports and their reports for others.

Hypothesis two

H2 Covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour may be found in employee reports for self and reports for others.

Hypothesis two (test 1) withdrawal behaviours - self-reports discussion

Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) analysis was used to determine if covert and overt factors (groups) emerged from the withdrawal behaviour items in the employees' reports for self (Test 1). The premise which led to the design of this hypothesis and the choice of statistical analysis, was based on the proposals of Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) who stated; "withdrawal behaviours should also be tested as a multi-faceted or multi-behavioural construct". The current research aimed to establish whether any of the withdrawal behaviours under investigation merged together in groups or constructs (i.e. as covert or overt factors), rather than the

approach taken by the wider literature, which has generally examined the behaviours as separate items.

Blau (1998) believed that more empirical research was needed to establish the validity and reliability of the multi-item behavioural constructs as proposed by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991). Although the previous literature debate has indicated that Blau appeared to disagree with testing withdrawal behaviours collectively, he did support such a research approach, as long as the research was conducted properly. In general, Blau (1998) agreed with Fisher (1980) in that "the basic idea of creating multi-item behavioural constructs to enhance work attitude-behaviour relationships is appealing".

The results of the first test for hypothesis two demonstrated that three of the employee withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) merged into a distinct behavioural factor group, which was labelled as the "covert factor" for the self-reports for employees. This indicated that the covert behaviours belonged to the same multi-item behavioural construct (group), which inferred that these behaviours were more closely related to one another, compared with either the behaviours of transferring or exiting the organisation.

Only one item (exiting the organisation) loaded on a second factor. The behaviour of transferring within the organisation failed to load on either factor. This demonstrated that the behaviour of transferring within the organisation was quite separate from exiting the organisation entirely, a finding that did not support the hypotheses which proposed that these two behaviours would form a natural "overt" group.

The factor loadings for the covert group in the present study suggested support for Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) arguments. Although the results of this current research may appear to partly support those of Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), it should be noted that Hanisch & Hulin investigated the behaviours from an organisational withdrawal, rather than an individual psychological withdrawal perspective, and that their behavioural families (work and job withdrawal constructs) and the variable behaviours under those constructs, were not necessarily the same as presented in the current study.

Their sample also differed from that of the present research, whereby they selectively sampled university academic staff, whilst the current study more widely examined South Australian public servants who occupied a wide range of job descriptions with varying hierarchical positions across multiple government departments. The present Australian sample population may have had very different mindsets from, for example, American private sector employees, and so an artefact may have emerged as a consequence of differing sample pools. Thus, further studies need to be undertaken to establish validity and consistency for research findings in this field, so that adequate comparisons might be made when examining the withdrawal behaviours under investigation.

One possible rationale for the present study's findings of a covert behavioural factor might be explained by the similar findings of Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), who proposed in their work withdrawal construct, that certain behaviours allowed employees to avoid aspects of their work tasks whilst maintaining their current organisational and work-role memberships. Arguably, the present research behaviours of minimal work, lateness and absenteeism could fall under a similar behavioural classification, whereby they might be considered as behaviours which afford a degree of subterfuge for employees to employ when experiencing low morale. Namely, they are a collective of 'covert' behaviours which might allow employees to maintain an association with the workplace, yet minimise their physical contact time in an environment which they might find unacceptable or objectionable.

Another interesting finding was that the transfers and exiting behaviours were not associated as like behaviours with one another, namely, no overt group was established from the factor analysis for self reports. Instead, the behaviours of exiting and transfers were seen as being quite separate from one another, and not form as part of an overt factor group. Blau (1998) suggested that the behaviour of intention to transfer needed to be included and empirically tested as part of Hanisch & Hulin's (1990, 1991) studies under their heading of 'work withdrawal'.

Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) latter study accepted Blau's recommendation, and included transfers, however they did not agree that this behaviour should be

included under the heading of 'work withdrawal'. They believed it was more appropriately classified as part of the 'job withdrawal construct', which was originally defined by Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) as being "employees efforts to remove themselves from a specific organization and their work role; withdrawal from their job". An alternative definition by Stewart 1996 (cited in Blau, 1998) suggested that transfer behaviour occurred when an individual desired to be removed from his or her current job situation, and not his or her current work tasks. Thus, could the results of the present study be explained on the basis of the definition of transfer behaviour?

For example, there may have been different interpretations by the employees from the public sector of South Australia who participated in the current research, as to the definition of transfers. One view might consider transfers to pertain to the situation when persons moved between subgroups (i.e. recruitment or training and development), but stayed within a particular unit (i.e. human resources). Secondly, an alternative view might consider that transfers occurred when individuals moved between different units (i.e. human resources or financial services), but within the same department (i.e. Department of Education) Additionally, the meaning of transfers might have pertained to the behaviour of transferring between departments (i.e. Department of Education or Department of Health), but staying within the whole of the public service (State Government of South Australia).

A common problem amongst previous studies in this area has related to the fact that the meaning of transfers or transferring have generally not been adequately defined, particularly in the context of the organisational structures which their participants were sampled from. Obviously, there may be large differences in organisational structures across sectors of employment for different countries. This could account for the varied responses and results which have been found when researchers have tried to analyse the behaviour of transferring.

Thus, the present study found no support for the behaviour of transfers to form part of either the work or job withdrawal constructs as proposed by Laczo & Hanisch (1999). In fact, from the present studies factor analysis, it appeared that transfers were separated from the other behaviours, as a discrete entity. Since

neither Blau (1998) nor Laczo & Hanisch (1999) actually quantitatively examined this behaviour by appropriate statistical analysis (factor analysis), it would appear that, to date, the present research is the only study to have empirically tested this relationship. The findings of the present research suggest that caution needs to be taken when making assumptions concerning any particular natural groupings of withdrawal behaviours. This was demonstrated by the fact that transfers and exits did not form an as expected overt factor group.

Despite previous propositions by March & Simon (1958), which have inferred that transfers and turnover (exit) could be considered as being the same behaviour, or that they served the same purpose to employees, the current research clearly indicated that the transfer and exit behaviours did not cluster together, and additionally they did not associate as part of a covert factor grouping.

Due to the fact that no explanatory studies have been conducted, it is difficult to definitively ascertain why the behaviours of transfers and exiting did not load together as hypothesised. A possible explanation might be offered through the research by Dalton & Todor (1987), who found that although employees may seek alternative employment outside their organisation (exit the organisation) to reduce unpleasant working circumstances, they might prefer to transfer within the organisation if that option were available.

Dalton & Todor (1987) proposed that internal transfers within organisations might be beneficial to employees, whereby employees may not lose their salary or fringe benefits by undertaking an internal transfer, as opposed to quitting entirely from the organisation. Certainly, employees in the present study might have seen the act of exiting the organisation as being quite final, in the sense that they would lose their government employment permanency, and the benefits of long service or annual leave. While there may be tacit support for these explanations, the current research did not inquire into the reasons for the separation of the overt type behaviours such as transfers and exiting the organisation. No further conclusions can be drawn until more detailed analysis is undertaken.

As the results of the present study indicated, transfers and exiting appeared as distinctly different withdrawal behaviours. Intuitively, whilst they both are seen as

being very open and obvious withdrawal actions to the independent observer, the participants of the present study may not have regarded them as being so. One could argue that individuals will choose their appropriate behavioural response according to their particular circumstances.

Hypothesis two (test 2) withdrawal behaviours - reports for others discussion

A second Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) Analysis was conducted on the five withdrawal behavioural items, this time testing the reports for others (Test 2). Using the same criteria as previously outlined, two factors were extracted. The initial factor-loading matrix again revealed that three items (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism behaviours) loaded on the first factor. In comparison with the self-reports results, transferring within the organisation loaded on the second factor. Conversely, the behaviour of exiting the organisation failed to load on either factor.

As with the results for the reports for self, a single factor solution was also observed. This added further support to the validity of the covert construct set of items, namely that the behaviours of minimal work, lateness and absenteeism clustered together forming a covert factor, which was consistent with the reports for self.

Interestingly, when examining the reports for others, the behaviour of transfers loaded on the second factor compared with the employee reports for self, where exiting the organisation loaded on a second potential factor. A comparison of the present research results for reports for others with that of the peer literature is difficult, due to the fact that factor analysis has not been utilised by the reviewed literature with respect to the study of withdrawal behaviours for reports for others. Thus, any explanations for this observed phenomenon might be considered as being speculative at this stage. Additionally, as only one behaviour (transfers) loaded on the second factor, this finding should be interpreted with caution, as a single behavior should not normally form a factor in its own right in isolation to other behaviours.

One possible explanation for the second PAF findings might relate to the previous study of self-serving biases by Johns (1994a). In adopting Johns' (1994a) theories regarding an ego-defensive mechanism, the reports for others may be a truer reflection of the behaviours which employees are more likely to enact themselves. Thus, when employees reported that transfer behaviour was the more likely option for their colleagues to take rather than exiting the organisation, this may indicate that they, themselves, would most likely choose to partake in transfer behaviour, rather than exit the organisation. If this were accepted to be the case, this explanation would lend support for Dalton & Todor's (1987) findings, which demonstrated that employees were often reluctant to exit the organisation.

The results from the factor analysis might suggest a progressive three-stage process, whereby employees might choose to enact covert type behaviours as a first line defence to relieve their low morale or dissatisfaction in their workplace. If these behaviours fail to satisfy their needs, they might move on and choose to internally transfer jobs within their workplace, if that option were available. If an internal transfer within the organisation fails to alleviate their dissatisfaction, they then are faced with a final solution, namely to exit the organisation altogether.

The question still stands: Are employees' true intentions more accurately reflected through their perceptions of what their colleagues might do under the same circumstances? The results of the present research, and that of Johns' (1994a) study, seems to indicate that participants' true intentions may be reflected through their perceptions regarding their colleagues behaviours. Additionally it seems that employees' behavioural choices might be influenced by a self-serving bias mechanism, and that those choices might be enacted in a form of hierarchical order according to their ability to relieve the employees' low morale or dissatisfaction with the workplace.

However, as no explanatory research has been undertaken to date, the explanations offered are speculative at this stage. Further research is required to elucidate a more concise reasoning for the relationship between employees' self-perceptions of withdrawal behaviours versus their perceptions of their colleagues' behaviours.

Thus, a covert factor of behavioural intention was found in the results from the factor analysis for the reports for self and the reports for others. In this instance, the null hypothesis was accepted. However, no overt factor of behavioural intention was found in the results from the factor analysis for the reports for self and the reports for others. In this case, the null hypothesis was rejected. Hence, overall, only partial support was found for hypothesis two.

Hypothesis three

H3 Employees self-reports of behavioural intent are likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others are likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

Hypothesis three: covert and overt behaviours - self versus others discussion

A Factorial Repeated Measures (two-way) ANOVA was utilised to examine the relationship between both the self-reports and reports for others with respect to the covert and overt withdrawal behaviours. This test was concerned with investigating whether or not a positive or negative interaction was found when employees self-reported their behaviours with regard to covert and overt factors, compared with their perceived reports for others for those same covert and overt behavioural groups.

To begin this discussion, one should firstly consider the factor analysis results from hypothesis two. Namely, it was found that a covert behavioural factor emerged from the withdrawal behaviours under investigation, and additionally, that no overt factor was identified from within those behaviours. This occurred for both the self-reports and the reports for others. Although not as hypothesised, it was additionally found that the behaviours of internal transfers and exiting the organisation, which were both described as being overt type behaviours, separated into two variables in their own right. In other words, these behaviours segregated from each other, and that of the covert behaviours factor in both the self-reports, and the reports for others. Hence, rather than analysing the self and others reports against covert and overt factors of behaviour, the self and others reports were analysed against the covert factor of behaviours and the individual behaviours of

transfers and exiting the organisation (which considered the results of hypothesis two) in the ANOVA for hypothesis three.

As the hypothesis three ANOVA results indicated, there was a significant difference between the patterns of behaviour when comparing the reports for self and the reports for others. Although an overt group failed to emerge from hypothesis two, and transfers and exiting the organisation were considered as separate behaviours for the ANOVA, the direction of their relationship in regards to the covert factor behaviours was preserved, as hypothesised, from the results for hypothesis three.

Namely, that employees' self-reports of behavioural intent rated their likelihood for both transferring and exiting the organisation as being higher than their likelihood to enact the covert factor behaviours. Conversely, the employee reports for others demonstrated that employees perceived their colleagues as more likely to participate in covert factor behaviours, rather than the behaviours of transferring and exiting the organisation.

There are two perspectives which might be considered here; either that the finding is a true phenomenon, whereby employees themselves do not participate in covert behaviours and that it is only a behaviour which their colleagues would truly enact, or an alternative, which considers that employees may be enacting self-serving biases and simply protecting their own egos. This latter proposal seems the more logical, whereby the results of the present study appeared to support previous research conducted by Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994), which proposed that a self-serving bias phenomenon might occur within organisations. Johns (1994a, p584) had previously proposed that "it is possible that people's absence self-reports could be valid but inaccurate", based on the fact that employees might protect their own egos by participating in self-serving biases which would involve them under-reporting their own behaviour.

Based on this premise, it could be argued that the employees' results for self in the current research may be valid yet inaccurate, and that their real intentions to behave may have been reflected through their reports for their colleagues. This may have particularly related to their reports for the covert behaviours, whereby

participants may have felt that their egos would need to be protected in answering the self-reports questions concerning covert behaviours. Hence, the covert behaviours may have been deemed more socially inappropriate than either transferring or exiting, and thus employees would under-report the occurrence of the covert factor behaviours for self. Similarly, when participants were questioned about their colleagues, there may be less concern about real or imagined threats to their own egos regarding the reporting of socially condoned behaviours, and thus the others reports may reflect a truer estimation of the reality regarding the occurrence of covert factor versus transfers or exiting behaviours.

An examination of Figure 5.4 revealed that the estimated marginal means between the self and others reports for both the transfers and exiting behaviours had a degree of overlap, and were more closely aligned with one another compared with the covert factor behaviours. If one is led to believe that both the transfers and exiting behaviours may have less of a social stigma attached to them, then there may not be any threat to a participant's ego when answering questions relating to those behaviours enactment. Thus, the results from Figure 5.4 may reflect the principles from Johns' (1994a) ego protective theory, whereby the covert factor behaviours are ones that employees do not wish to associate themselves with, hence the divergence seen between the self and others reports for this group of behaviours. Conversely, there may be less social stigma attached to the behaviours of transferring or exiting, thus explaining the convergence in the self and others reports for those behaviours.

The pairwise comparisons confirmed the previous results which indicated that employees had the perception that they had less of a likelihood to enact withdrawal behaviours compared with that of their colleagues, and that under low morale conditions, employees would most likely transfer internally within the government organisation rather than exit the organisation altogether. These results also seem in keeping with the previous hypotheses results, which suggest the possibility of a three stage or progressive process of workplace behaviour when employees have low morale, and that perhaps the pattern of transfer rather than exit relates to the potential loss of entitlements or work permanency which a government job may provide. Whilst these suppositions seem plausible, further

research is required to more fully ascertain the employees' cognitions behind their workplace withdrawal choices.

There are analogies from previous research findings regarding the absence literature which may be applied to the current research findings overall. Johns (1994a) for example, formed an argument concerning absence behaviour which might be applicable to the results concerning the covert withdrawal behaviours studied in the present thesis. Johns' argument followed along the following lines, whereby, in certain organisations, despite an organisation's clear definition of absenteeism and its consequences, and despite their employees' clear understanding of those definitions, some employees may still feel that they should be afforded a certain degree of allowable absenteeism within that organisation.

Thus, it was possible that, in responding to the survey instrument's questionnaire for the present research, employees may have discounted some of their own absence (or other withdrawal behavioural) occurrences which they may have felt were attributable to unavoidable circumstances, or were allowable, and thus, under-reported their real frequency. Johns (1994a) suggested that such a situational perspective permitted employees to disassociate themselves from potentially negative outcomes when enquiring about those behavioural occurrences.

Although the current research did not investigate whether or not employees intended to take days off due to unavoidable circumstances, this current study still found partial support for such an argument, whereby employees underestimated their own frequency for such behaviours, regardless of the reasons.

Epley & Dunning, (2000) added some possible support to explain the findings as to why employees who had low morale in the public sector might have overestimated their intention to transfer, and potentially to exit, rather than opting to perform covert type behaviours. As Epley & Dunning (2000) found, when people evaluated themselves, they tended to overestimate their own 'good' behaviour. Thus, they typically believed that they were more likely to engage in selfless, kind and generous behaviours, compared with that of their peers. When

persons were asked to estimate their peers' behaviour, they were often more accurate in predicting the actual frequencies and types of behaviours performed.

This argument may be understood by Nicholson's 1975 study (cited in Johns, 1994b), which interviewed industrial workers, and found that workers had the tendency to view absenteeism by their co-workers in a negative sense, even if they themselves were frequently absent from that particular workplace. Thus, despite enacting socially condoned withdrawal behaviours themselves, employees still preferred to associate themselves with positive group outcomes, and disassociate themselves from negative group outcomes (Schlenker & Miller, 1977). An observation by Tyson (1992), commented that researchers have consistently observed that people often see themselves as being more ethical than their comparable peers, especially when they are confronted with the prospect of identification with ethically questionable work behaviours.

A study by Laczo & Hanisch (1999), which focussed on the withdrawal behaviours displayed by volunteer workers and paid employees, found that when these differing worker groups did not perceive each other in a positive manner, their perceptions were manifested as either an intention to leave the organisation, or to transfer to a different position within that organisation. The researchers also interestingly found that the participants' perceptions were not manifested in the enactment of lateness, absence or unfavourable job behaviours. They rationalised their findings by proposing that such behaviour reflected an attempt by the workers to remove themselves from a presumably unpleasant situation within that organisation, and not an attempt by workers to remove themselves from their work tasks.

The results from the repeated measures ANOVA for hypothesis three partly supported Laczo & Hanisch's (1999) findings, whereby employees in the present study also perceived themselves as more likely to transfer, or exit from the organisation, rather then enacting the covert factor behaviours (i.e. minimal work, lateness and absenteeism). However, Laczo & Hanisch (1999) did not consider the contribution which self serving biases might have influenced their results, and only tested self-perceptions for the participants in their study, whereas the present study tested both self, and perceptions for others in its experimental design.

Hence, the current study appears to be the first which has specifically examined employees' perceptions of themselves against those of their colleagues with regards to their enactment of withdrawal behaviours under the conditions of low morale. Additionally, the present research appears to have been unique in its design by the use of a double control method to select participants with low morale, whereby participants were firstly asked to think in terms of low morale, with the subsequent research sample being selected from those participants who actually had low morale (as quantified by the use of a validated morale survey). Further research would need to be undertaken in order to gain a deeper level of understanding of employees' perceptions of self versus others.

Although hypothesis two demonstrated that an overt group factor did not exist, the behaviours of transfers and exiting the organisation were still considered as being behaviours which were overt in nature, and were separate from the covert factor behaviours. Regardless of whether transferring and exiting did not form an overt factor, the direction of their relationship in regards to the covert factor behaviours was preserved, as hypothesised. Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted.

DEMOGRAPHICS AND WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIOURS

In order to examine whether there were any parallels between the results of the present research and that of the reviewed literature, a MANOVA was performed, whereby the selected withdrawal behaviours of minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation were tested against the demographic variables of interest, namely age, gender, education and position.

With respect to the results from the employees' self reports, only one significant interaction was found. In contrast, the results of the employees' reports for others indicated that seven interactions existed between the chosen demographics and withdrawal behaviours of the current study.

Self-reports

Education and position on absenteeism

An interaction between education, position and absenteeism was the only significant result observed from the MANOVA for the reports for self. It was found that managers with a degree perceived themselves as being more likely to be absent from the workplace compared with the general staff who had a degree. Alternatively, managers who did not possess a degree were significantly less likely to be absent compared with the general staff who had no degree. Interestingly, all of these employees (whether managers or staff) rated their likelihood for being absent when experiencing low morale as being less than three, which indicated that, overall, they saw themselves as being less likely to enact this behaviour.

A possible explanation for these findings might consider that managers who possessed a tertiary qualification may have felt more secure in their workplace tenure, compared with the general staff who had degrees. Conversely, managers with no degree may have felt less secure in their organisational tenure, and thus might have felt that they had more to lose if they were more frequently absent compared with the staff with no degrees, or the managers with tertiary qualifications. From this particular MANOVA tests cohort, the highest ratings for absence behaviour were seen amongst the staff with no degrees. This might be explained by the possibility that they may have felt that they had nothing to lose by being frequently absent from the organisation, or that by being lower in the organisational hierarchy, they were less likely to be missed when absent, when compared with their more qualified peers.

Alternatively, the general staff without degrees may not possess the same work ethic as their more educated or highly ranked peers, which may explain their higher absenteeism intentions. Even when experiencing low morale, the more highly ranked or educated managers may maintain a work ethic that they consider is important to their own esteem (i.e. have pride in their work), which may not be observed in those with less education, or lower in the organisational hierarchy.

Whilst studies have historically explored the relationship between behaviours and the demographics of age, gender, and tenure, few, if any, studies to date have considered the relationships between the specific demographics such as education (degree versus no degree) or position (managers versus staff) with respect to the withdrawal behaviours as examined in the current research. Although it would have been of interest to compare tenure against the withdrawal behaviours for the current research, the departments which participated in the present study were not interested in this variable, and as a consequence it was not included in the final survey instrument's design.

Previous research groups have found varying relationships between age, gender and absenteeism behaviour. For example, Nicholson, *et al.* (1977) found that absence frequency correlated with age for males, but not for females. Their study found that males under the age of 26 were absent the most, with males over the age of 46 being absent the least. Conversely, Hackett (1989) found that females were more likely to be absent than males. Klein's (1986) study additionally found that absences rates by sex (across all ages) were approximately half that for men (3.7%) when compared with women (6.3%).

Martocchio (1989) found that absence frequency decreased with age, which was in agreement with Mobley *et al.* (1978) and Rhodes (1983), who found that older workers were less likely to quit (exit) when compared with younger workers. It has also been observed that older workers were less likely to engage in certain work withdrawal behaviours, such as absence, when compared with younger counterparts (Martocchio, 1989 and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999).

Whilst the overall trends from the above studies (which have investigated the correlations between absenteeism and age) have found significant negative correlations between absence and age, no support for these claims was found in this current research from the employees self reports. Likewise, the gender relationships with respect to absence behaviour were also not observed.

The present study's findings appear to be more in line with Martin (1971) and Nicholson *et al.* (1977), who found that avoidable absenteeism did not significantly correlate with the age of persons, and with Farrell & Stamm's (1988)

findings, which proposed that correlations between absence, age and sex were not promising.

Given that many of the reviewed publications have variably considered withdrawal as being many differing behaviours, it is difficult to draw any definitive comparisons between this result and that of the wider literature. Moreover, many of the publications have presented findings regarding withdrawal behaviours in relation to job satisfaction, compared with the current study's findings, which alternatively considered them against a low morale proxy.

Hanisch & Hulin, (1990, 1991), Johnsrud & Rosser, (1999a) and Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) found generally that the higher an employee's job level was, the more satisfied they were, and hence the less likely they would be to withdraw from their work. An extension of this finding proposed that the more educated an employee was, the more satisfied they would be, and the less likely they would be to withdraw from work when compared with their peers who had less education (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991; Johnsrud & Rosser 1999a and Johnsrud *et al.*, 2000).

Whilst the literature has shown generally that withdrawal behaviours may be reduced by either an increase in job position or level of education, the current study's findings for the self-reports were more complex in nature, with interactions beyond the main effects which have been observed in the literature, hence the present study's difficulty in quantifying meaningful comparisons.

For example, the MANOVA for the self-reports found no significant main effect interactions between the demographic variables and the withdrawal behaviours in question. This appeared to be in line with the conclusions drawn from the meta-analyses by Hackett & Guion (1985) and Steers & Porter (1991), which found no relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism.

The fact that only a single interaction was found for employees' reports for self-behaviours was interesting. This might have been an aberration, which may have been the result of the research design which was used, whereby subjects who had low morale were asked to think in terms of low morale. Another explanation for

this result may be, as Johns (1994a) argued, due to the fact that employees may have been protecting their own egos and underreporting their true intentions regarding the enactment of the withdrawal behaviours. Thus, employees' real intentions regarding their withdrawal behaviours may alternatively be reflected through their reports for others. As no explanatory questions regarding the choices made by participants were asked in the current study, the explanations offered are a collective of speculative rationales drawn from the literature. As such, the interpretations of the results for the current study are not conclusive, and further detailed research would need to be undertaken.

Reports for others

As with the self-reports, the demographic variables of interest were quantitatively assessed against the withdrawal behaviours for the employee reports for others. This was accomplished via the use of a second MANOVA. It would appear, to date, that the surveyed literature has not considered quantitative assessment (MANOVA) of reports for others' intentions in relation to withdrawal behaviours.

If one considers the arguments proposed by Johns (1994a), whereby self-serving bias theory predicted that the perceptions of others were a more accurate reflection of self, then the present research findings regarding the employees perceptions of others may tentatively reflect those employees true self intentions regarding the interactions between withdrawal behaviours and the demographic variables. In using this argument, one could then compare any potential findings of the current research against the existing surveyed literature.

In the analysis of the reports for others, the definition of "your colleagues" might have been interpreted by the employees as being persons of a similar status and position to the percipients. However, other possible interpretations might have alternatively considered "your colleagues" as being subordinates to the participant of the study, or as all staff and managers around that participant, or as all persons in the same position as that participant, or as all persons from a similar gender or age group. Moreover, an additional definition might have interpreted colleagues as being persons "with whom I interacted".

Whilst an aggregation of these differing definitions may limit some of the potential statistical variations which might be observed (Fields, 2005), statistical skewness may still arise within specific groups of participants according to the particular demographic variables investigated. Such confounding factors, including the number of participants which constitute each cell in a MANOVA, might explain potential discrepancies for the demographic findings in the current research with that of the peer literature. Thus, the following interpretations should consider the potential distortions implied in the use of the original definition of "colleagues", as stated above.

The demographics of gender and age, which have been more widely explored by the peer literature, were considered as demographic variables of interest in the current research. However, the demographic variables of position and education, which have been less commonly considered by peer literature, were included at the request of the participating departments, as a proviso that would permit access by the researcher to survey the participating department's employees. As a consequence of this, direct comparisons between the present study's findings and the surveyed literature regarding these relationships between the demographic variables and behaviours, were limited.

Position on minimal work

Education and position on minimal work

The first significant finding regarding the reports for others MANOVA concerned a main effect of position and minimal work performed. The results demonstrated that the general staff perceived their colleagues as being significantly more likely to perform minimal work under conditions of low morale, compared with the managers' perceptions for their colleagues. Additionally, the mean scores for both the managers and general staff reports were above three, indicating that both groups felt that the behaviour of minimal work was likely to be displayed by their colleagues when they experienced conditions of low morale.

The second significant finding was the interactional effect between education and position on minimal work. An inspection of the means from the two-way

interaction indicated that managers with a degree had the perception that their colleagues were significantly more likely to perform minimal work under conditions of low morale, compared with the managers without degrees, who indicated that their colleagues were less likely to perform the minimal amount of work under the conditions of low morale. There was no significant difference in the peer assessment ratings between the general staff with or without degrees, with both groups indicating that their colleagues were likely to perform minimal work when they experienced low morale. An examination of the mean scores indicated that all of the groups had the perception that their colleagues would engage in minimal work when they experienced low morale.

One of the most interesting findings was that of the significant difference in reported scores for minimal work in those managers who did not possess a tertiary degree. Why, when experiencing the same low morale conditions as their colleagues, might this subgroup of employees report a significantly lower rate of minimal work behaviour? To date, there appears to be a paucity of comparable literature in which to reflect on for this demographic finding.

A speculative reason may lie with the social or hierarchical opportunities afforded to this subgroup population within the South Australian government. Managers without degrees may not have the same opportunities for alternative job prospects when compared with their peers who possess tertiary degrees. Thus, they may feel that they might not be able to afford the consequences of enacting the types of behaviour which the establishment may find objectionable, or have grounds on which to demote or replace them. Hence, despite having low morale, they might put up with unsatisfactory (psychological) conditions in order to retain their tenure. Alternatively, they might find an alternative behaviour to enact, which might allow the relief of their low morale state.

Previous research by Johns (1994a) has indicated that the use of peer estimations of behaviour enactment may provide a more accurate reflection of an individual's true intentions, rather than their own self-reports regarding the manifestation of certain behaviours. Whilst the results from the self-reports MANOVA demonstrated that no particular relationship existed between an employee's workplace position and their enactment of minimal work, the reports for others

MANOVA indicated a different situation, whereby a significant relationship existed between these variables.

Thus, if one takes the arguments by Johns (1994a) to be true, then the reports for others might speculatively indicate that the participating employees' true intentions to perform minimal work would be reflected through their estimations of their colleagues' behaviours. Thus, when experiencing low morale, it is possible that the present research's employees indicated through these peer assessments that they would perform minimal work, and that a relationship existed between their level of education and the degree to which they would perform minimal work.

Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) appear to be amongst the first researchers to investigate the types of behaviours which have had any similarities to the present study's behaviour of 'minimal work'. Additionally, Hanisch & Hulin appear to be the first researchers who have explored behaviours similar in notion to minimal work against particular demographic variables. In their description of 'unfavourable job behaviours', Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) included the behaviours such as failure to attend meetings; the taking of frequent coffee or lunch breaks; etcetera (Hanish, 1995a), and suggested that 'unfavourable job behaviours' actually formed part of a larger dimension, which they called 'work withdrawal'.

Whilst Hanisch & Hulin's definition of 'unfavourable job behaviours' might be interpreted as including behaviour such as 'minimal work', the definition for minimal work for the current research is more specific than their generic description of 'unfavourable job behaviours'. Additionally, the measures and scales used in their research differed from that of the present research.

For example, Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) used scales which ranged from one to six for education, with one meaning '12 years of education or less', through to six meaning 'more years of graduate or professional work beyond college'. Whilst the current research also included an education demographic, the scale used was somewhat different from Hanisch & Hulin's, with a more simplistic scale being applied in the current research. Namely, the present research scale proposed that

'one' indicated those with a degree, and 'two' indicated those persons with no degree. Hence, the use of differing scales in survey instruments often makes meaningful comparisons between studies either difficult, or invalid.

Regardless of the definition of, or of the scales used, the present research appears to be one of the first studies to identify a relationship between the withdrawal behaviour of minimal work, workplace position and education. Minimal work performed is an additional withdrawal behaviour which has received limited empirical research to date, especially in relation to the specific demographics of education and position, and a consideration of peer assessment. Thus, a meaningful comparison between the present study and that of the wider literature is limited, and only speculative explanations from the literature can be presented.

Position on absenteeism

Education and position on absenteeism

A third significant finding related to the main effect observed between an employee's position and absenteeism, whereby the general staff reported the perception that their colleagues would be significantly more likely to be absent when experiencing low morale, when compared with the estimated reports regarding management.

The fourth significant finding was an interaction between education and position on absenteeism. Inspection of the mean scores of the two-way interaction indicated that managers with no degree had the perception that their colleagues were significantly less likely to be absent when experiencing low morale, when compared to the estimates by their peers who had degrees. This was in contrast to the general staff reports, whereby both groups of employees (those with, and without degrees) indicated that their colleagues would be significantly more likely to enact absenteeism behaviour when experiencing low morale.

Previous research which has investigated the patterns of behaviours in academics by Hanisch & Hulin (1990; 1991), proposed that the more educated an employee was, or the higher their job level, the less likely they would be to withdraw from

their work situation, when compared with those employees who had less education, or worked at a lower job level. Such conclusions appear to both agree and contrast with the present research demographic findings with respect to absence for a government employee cohort. The main effect statistics indicate that there was the perception from the reports for others that management would exhibit less absenteeism when compared with that of the general staff, which would be in general agreement with the past findings of Hanisch & Hulin (1990; 1991).

Alternatively, the interactional effect statistics indicate that absenteeism behaviour would be likely seen in general staff with and without degrees, and management with degrees, but that those persons in management without degrees would enact absence behaviour significantly less so when experiencing low morale.

Hanisch & Hulin's (1990; 1991) findings would suggest that those persons who held higher job positions would exhibit less absence behaviour, when compared with the staff that held lower job positions. However, whilst this phenomenon was observed in the present research when one examined those employees without degrees, i.e. management indicating significantly less absence behaviour compared with general staff, this relationship did not seem to hold when one examined those employees with tertiary education. Namely, there was no significant difference between management or staff with degrees and the extent to which they indicated that they would enact absence under conditions of low morale, i.e. both groups indicating that their colleagues would significantly display absence behaviour under low morale conditions.

One can speculate as to the rationale behind such a finding. Possessing a higher education qualification may permit those employees to feel secure if they were absent from work conditions that they might find objectionable, or which may contribute to their low morale. Thus, an education may provide employees with a sense of protection, whereby frequent absence behaviour may not result in a real threat to their professional or financial security, hence the reports for others which indicated a significant likelihood for absence behaviour under low morale conditions.

Conversely, those managers without a tertiary education may be limited in their ability to find comparable jobs or jobs with comparable remuneration external to that of their current position, and thus may 'suffer quietly' in their present job roles, as they may not feel as secure as their colleagues with degrees, who might have better job prospects if they found that their position was under review for frequent absence behaviour.

Alternatively, the general staff with no degrees who comprise the largest demographic from the present sample cohort, may be considered as being at the bottom of the workplace hierarchy, with jobs incorporating repetition, and the lowest levels of responsibility. Researchers have historically noted that a correlation exists between organisational size and increased absenteeism. This could be explained by a greater latitude regarding absenteeism from work, which may be afforded to employees in larger organisations (Gibson, 1966 and Porter & Steers, 1973). The South Australian government could be considered as being such a large organisation.

General staff job descriptions also generally entail the types of employment which require less specialised skills, or as having less variety in their work content, which often results in reduced work satisfaction. It has been previously demonstrated that employees who are less satisfied with their jobs were more likely to be absent from work (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg *et al.,* 1957; Vroom, 1964 and Porter & Steers, 1973). Thus, the more satisfied an employee was, the less likely the individual would be absent from the organisation (Porter & Steers, 1973).

Thus, the general staff job description by its very nature may be associated with lower levels of job satisfaction and morale, and the present findings may indicate such a relationship. Additionally, those general staff with no degrees may not be as conspicuous when they are absent, or may be more easily replaced than managers on days of absence. Thus, without the same job requirements as their educational peer managers, the general staff may not feel that they have the same pressures to attend their workplace, or had fewer reprisals as a consequence of their absence. Hence, when general staff with no degrees experienced low morale

conditions, they may have had less affinity with their workplace, and higher levels of absenteeism, hence the inflated absence scores in the reports for others.

Interestingly, the patterns of behaviour observed in the interactive effect between absence and education essentially paralleled the interactive effect observed between minimal work and education, in the reports for others MANOVA. Thus, it would seem that employees who are experiencing a low morale mindset may display both of these covert type behaviours, and that there was a significant relationship with their perceived enactment and the level of education of employees, as reported from the participants peer assessments. Whilst there are a number of speculative discussion points, further qualitative investigations may more fully explain these significant findings, which would be the aim for future research in this area.

Gender, education and position on transferring within the organisation

The fifth significant interaction occurred between gender, education and position on transfers within the organisation. Males in management with a degree perceived their colleagues as being significantly less likely to transfer, whereas male staff with no degree perceived their colleagues as being significantly most likely to transfer when experiencing low morale. Inspection of the results indicated a progressive pattern of likelihood to transfer when experiencing low morale according to education and position, whereby those male individuals with degrees who held management positions indicated that their colleagues would be least likely to transfer, with an increase in propensity to transfer indicated by the male staff with degrees, the male managers with no degrees, and finally leading to the male staff with no degrees, who strongly indicated that their colleagues would transfer jobs when experiencing low morale.

Whilst the same pattern of propensity to transfer under conditions of low morale was observed for the female respondents, statistical significance was narrowly missed. Observation of the mean scores indicated similarly, that female management with degrees reported the lowest perceived intentions for their colleagues to transfer, with a progressive increase up to the female staff with no

degrees who indicated that their colleagues would most likely to transfer when experiencing low morale.

If one adopts the argument that employees' true intentions are more accurately reflected through their reports for others (Johns, 1994a), then possible connections between the current research findings with that of the reviewed literature may be explored and compared. A limitation exists, however, as many of the peer research studies have used varying or loose descriptions of "turnover", which may be interpreted as either being 'transfer" behaviour as for the present interaction, or as "exit' behaviour for the subsequent interactions which will be discussed. Despite these limitations, broad extrapolations may still be considered.

It appeared from the present results that there was no significant overall difference in the perceived transfer rates for colleagues when comparing between genders. This result parallels previous labour economic findings which demonstrated that educated women actually resembled men in their turnover rate and pattern (Royalty, 1998). The present study however, indicated that perhaps a specific relationship might exist for transfer behaviour against the demographic variables for males with position and education. A meta-analysis by Griffeth *et al.* (2000) found that few demographic attributes meaningfully predicted turnover, the exceptions being company tenure and number of children. The present research however did not examine either of these demographic variables, as previously outlined, which may be a focus for future research.

Griffeth *et al.* (2000) also found that there was no correlation between cognitive ability and turnover, which contrasted with the past estimates by Hom & Griffeth's (1995) meta-analysis, which indicated that more intelligent employees were less prone to quit. Whilst the present research interaction demonstrated the possibility that such a relationship may exist when one compared male management with degrees and male staff with no degrees, and hence support Griffiths (1995) findings, there appeared to be no significant global difference in transfer rates when comparing those with or without degrees, which was more in line with Griffeth *et al.* 's (2000) more contemporary findings.

As with the previously discussed interactions, education and position seem to have an influence on employees' perceptions regarding their colleagues enactment of withdrawal behaviours in the South Australian government. Possible explanations may once again consider the benefits which education might provide for government workers in a hierarchical or bureaucratic environment.

Male managers with degrees may exhibit a greater affinity for their current jobs when compared with their more lowly ranked colleagues, which may be the result of a greater personal work ethic, or greater desire to stay in a position once they have attained such. Staff lower down the hierarchy, particularly those without tertiary educations, may not have the same opportunities for job promotion within particular departments in the short to long term, and hence report a greater likelihood for their "colleagues" to transfer when experiencing low morale, as they may feel that they have little to lose when transferring from a position which may influence their morale.

Additionally, when one compares the mean scores for males and females for internal transfer behaviour between those staff with, and those staff without degrees, the same pattern of behaviour was exhibited. Namely, staff without degrees indicated that their colleague's intentions to internally transfer were increased compared with the staff with degrees estimates for their colleagues, and that for males this relationship was statistically significant. Again, whether this result reflects an increased perception by government employees without tertiary qualifications of a lack of opportunity or job scope within their particular departments, is an interesting question which remains to be more fully elucidated.

Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) indicated that perceptions of one's work life had a direct impact on morale, and that morale had a direct impact on an employee's intention to leave the institution. Thus it may not seem all that surprising that more lowly ranked or educated respondents in the present study reported an increasing tendency for their "colleagues" to display increased rates of internal transfer behaviour when experiencing low morale.

The use of MANOVA has received limited application by peer literature, particularly in relation to the demographic variables of interest for the present

study. Thus, direct comparisons between the present study's demographic variable of 'internal transfers' with peer research articles have been somewhat limited to date. Hence, there is a need for further explanatory and comparative research to be undertaken to more fully explain the potential relationships between education and position, particularly in relation to the South Australian government workforce.

Gender and education on exiting the organisation

The sixth significant interaction found was between gender and education on exiting the organisation. Males with no degree perceived their colleagues as being significantly less likely to exit the organisation under a low morale mindset in comparison with those males with degrees. A reverse relationship was found for the female employees. Females with a degree perceived their colleagues to be less likely to exit the organisation when experiencing low morale conditions when compared with those females who had no degrees.

Further examination of the means found that males with no degree perceived their colleagues as being the least likely to exit the organisation in comparison with the perceptions of females with no tertiary degree. This seems to be in contrast to Griffeth *et al.*'s (2000) meta-analysis, which revealed that women's quit rates were similar to that of the men's. Interestingly, there was no significant difference in the perceived scores to exit between male and female employees with degrees in the present study. This result would conform to Royalty's (1998) labour economic finding which demonstrated that educated women actually resembled men in their turnover rate and pattern, whereby more highly educated females would leave to assume another job rather than to abandon the labour force altogether, which was a route generally taken by less educated female leavers.

If one looks at the present results for any differences between males and females, and their perceptions of their colleagues' intentions to exit in isolation of the education demographic, this relationship was lost, and was more in keeping with the meta-analysis by Griffeth *et al.* (2000). Perhaps the recent meta-analyses may not have considered educational influences in their development of gender relationships, and their potential significance in altering exit behaviour, as seen in

the present study. Whether this is a phenomenon particular to employees of the South Australian government, remains as an area for future research.

Interestingly, all groups reported mean scores less than three, indicating that despite having low morale, all groups reported the perception that their colleagues were less likely to exit the organisation under low morale conditions. This was in keeping with the results from hypothesis 1, test 5. It was also interesting to note that the fifth interaction from the present study's MANOVA demonstrated that male staff with no degrees demonstrated the highest reported intentions for their colleagues to transfer when experiencing low morale, yet the sixth interaction seemed to demonstrate that this particular group's colleagues may have indicated the lowest intentions to exit the organisation.

This may be explained by the particular organisational structure of the government organisation, whereby employees may lose permanency and entitlements if they left the organisation altogether, thus explaining the reports for others findings, and perhaps indicating that an internal transfer might be a more viable alternative for those employees. Again, whether this apparent hesitance to exit the organisation despite experiencing low morale represents a phenomenon particular to the South Australian government employees, remains as an area for further research. Additionally, the ascertainment of potential employee preferences for behavioural enactment when experiencing low morale also remains as an area of interest for future study.

Education, position, and age on exiting the organisation

A seventh significant interaction was found between the variables of education, position, age and exiting the organisation. An examination of the mean scores indicated that the majority of groups indicated that their colleagues would be less likely to exit the organisation when experiencing low morale. This was in keeping with the present study's previous findings from hypothesis 1 (test 5) and hypothesis 3 regarding exit behaviour; that most employees indicated (through both the self, or the reports for others) that they would less likely exit the organisation.

However, two groups proved to be exceptions to such a finding. The older staff with degrees, and the older management with no degrees indicated that they had the perception that their colleagues were significantly more likely to exit under low morale conditions, when compared with most other employee groups. This result may be explained by the organisational structure of the South Australian government, and the impact that hierarchy and bureaucracy might exert on its employees. As previously discussed, permanency and leave entitlements are significant benefits of working in State government (Cvijetic, 2000), which employees may consider as important conditions which they are reluctant to lose. When one considers where these two groups lie in relation to their relative organisational and personal life structures, then possible explanations concerning their peer perceptions are forthcoming.

Beginning with those older staff with degrees, one could speculate (based on age) that they most likely have been in the organisation for a considerable time. If they have remained in a staff position only, then their opportunity for advancing to a management position may be less likely when compared with younger staff members with a degree. When compared with other older staff members without degrees, those with degrees may feel undervalued for the skills which they possess, additionally having more opportunity when compared with their less educated peers, of gaining employment outside government in private organisations due to their educational advantage. As such, with fewer promotional prospects within government, those older employees with degrees may elect to take separation packages, and try their luck in an open job market, or retire altogether if they are experiencing low morale in their current job position.

Likewise, those older managers with no degrees also have most likely worked in the government structure for a considerable period of time. As compared with the older staff, the older managers have most likely received the benefits of their management position from the government bureaucratic structure, i.e. had more training or opportunity to gain work experience awards or certificates reflective of their management skills. In short, they may have the runs on the board so to speak, with experience at management level over a prolonged time, and although they may not possess a tertiary education, they may command more value in an

open labour market due to the management skills which they would bring, when compared to older staff without tertiary education.

Thus, when experiencing low morale in their current work roles, older managers with no degrees may also feel that they still have opportunity in a private work environment, and may also have less fear associated with taking a redundancy package and trying for employment elsewhere (such as local councils or federal government which might value their skills and renumerate them accordingly), or retiring from work altogether. Hence, this may explain their higher estimations concerning their colleagues exiting behaviour when experiencing low morale.

Conversely, those older staff without degrees might be faced with a triple obstacle scenario for their external workplace opportunities; firstly their age, secondly a lack of tertiary eduction, and thirdly a lack of management experience and the training certificates which may come with such experience. Thus, an older staff member with no degree may have the perception that their peer colleagues might have limited opportunity for employment or comparable remuneration outside of the protective government work structure environment which they currently find themselves in. Hence, despite having low morale, the older staff member with no degree may see limited alternatives, and elect to stay in government, which may be reflected by the low mean scores reported regarding their colleagues exiting behaviour.

When one compares those younger managers without degrees with the older managers without degrees, the younger employees indicated that their colleagues would be significantly less likely to leave. As with the above explanations, this difference in the observed exiting mean scores may reflect the opportunity that a management position might confer to a younger employee, when compared with an older employee, especially when they do not possess a tertiary qualification. Hence, a younger employee without a degree may place a great deal of value on the attainment of a management position, and so despite having low morale, may have the perception that colleagues in a similar position to themselves, would not elect to exit the organisation.

Likewise, younger staff with degrees also indicated that their colleagues would be significantly less likely to exit when compared with the older staff with degrees. Again, this result may reflect a belief that age and education may be on their side, thus younger staff with degrees may have the perception that comparable colleagues would have more opportunities in a State government structure for job improvement or promotion than older staff, hence reflecting the lower exiting mean scores which were indicated. Older management with degrees also reported that their colleagues would be significantly less likely to exit under low morale conditions when compared with the older staff with degrees. This may also be rationalised by the opportunity which position may grant to the older manager with a degree, whereby they may have the perception that comparable colleagues would have a good job position, with good remuneration, when compared with colleagues in a staff position, thus reflecting the lower reported exit scores concerning their colleagues intentions.

If one adopts the rationale that reports for others may more accurately reflect self intentions (Johns, 1994b), one could argue that the prediction of the employees intentions to behave in a certain manner would be found in their evaluation of their colleagues. Hence, some general comparisons could be made between the results of the present findings and that of the surveyed literature.

Recent meta-analyses have demonstrated that few demographic variables predict turnover, with the exception of tenure and number of dependant children (Griffeth *et al.*, 2000). However, it has been well documented in the literature that a lack of clarity in behavioural definitions has made meaningful comparisons in relation to demographic variables and withdrawal behaviours difficult. The terms of retirement, transfer, quitting or exiting have often been included in broad definitions of turnover, particularly in relation to organisational or individual turnover intentions. As such, it is difficult to compare the present findings with that of peer literature, particularly in relation to perceptions of others' behavioural intentions.

Johnsrud *et al.* (2000), found that age exerted weak effect on both morale and intent to leave, with the demographic variables of gender and position exerting non-significant behavioural effects in their study. Conversely, Mobley *et al.*

(1978) and Rhodes (1983) proposed that older workers were less likely to quit (exit) when compared with younger workers. The results of this present interaction from the reports for others MANOVA would seem to contrast with their findings. This may be a consequence of the scales used by peer literature for their particular demographics and behaviours investigated, thus making a comparison of results difficult.

For example, Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991) only measured their variables in persons aged between 50 to 71 years, whereas the current study investigated a wider age demographic from young to old (from 20 to 50 and over) in its demographic scales. Additionally, differing sample populations (private organisations versus State government), differing sample sizes (small versus large) and the particular statistical methods used (correlation or regression versus MANOVA) also play a role in the limitation of meaningful comparisons.

Whilst the focus of the current research was on intent to withdraw labour and the links with low morale, a number of interesting demographic findings were identified. Whilst speculative explanations are offered for these, due to the absence of comparable research findings, further quantitative and qualitative research is required to formulate a more conclusive and meaningful comparison with the present findings.

TEST FOR SAMPLE REPRESENTATIVENESS

On inspection and consideration of the chi-square results from the demographic data from the current research sample population, it appeared that there was a slight over-representation of older employees and employees without degree qualifications in the low morale sample. This may not be particularly surprising, given that these situations may possibly be associated with persons who might have low morale.

Arguably, one could speculate that employees who do not have tertiary education may have more limited employment options when compared with those employees who possessed a tertiary degree. As such, those without degrees may have more negative feelings about the workplace, and as a consequence have

lower morale. Hanisch & Hulin (1990) had previously demonstrated an educational effect, whereby non-academic staff displayed a difference in work affect, a greater desire to retire, less work satisfaction, and attributed less importance to their jobs when compared with academic peers.

Equally, older employees in South Australian government may face similar limitations with respect to job alternatives or advancement compared with their younger counterparts, and as such display more negative feelings toward the workplace. This may also manifest as low morale. The findings from the exit behaviour interactions in the reports for others MANOVA possibly demonstrates this phenomenon, whereby subsets of older employees indicated that their colleagues were more likely to exit when experiencing low morale, when compared with younger counterparts.

This finding is in contrast with previous research by Johnsrud (2000), who proposed that age possibly exerted a weak effect on morale. An alternative explanation for the present research findings may simply be due to sample bias, whereby the present study design selected for low morale individuals when assessing withdrawal behaviours. Thus, whether this larger distribution of older employees represents a real effect, or an effect due to a skewed demographic sample remains to be reinvestigated.

However, as limited support has been identified in the surveyed literature to either concur with, or dispel these findings, these conclusions are speculative. As a result, further research would need to be undertaken in this area. Thus the significance of the chi-square tests regarding age and education need to be interpreted cautiously with respect to their true significance, and consequently would make for interesting future research.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

WITHDRAWAL OF LABOUR: THEORY- SOURCED FRAMEWORK

Organisations have attempted to measure employee attitudes, such as morale and job satisfaction, in order to better understand employee behaviour and improve workplace efficiency. Withdrawal behaviours have resulted in inefficiency and instability in the workplace (Morgan & Herman, 1976). Behaviour, without a context in which to frame the action, has often proven difficult to evaluate, necessitating the requirement of indicator instruments such as morale surveys.

Research has demonstrated that attitudes and behaviours of individuals have been responsible for the occurrence of certain withdrawal behaviours in the workplace, and that internal and external forces also impact on behavioural enactment. Thus, in order to better understand the factors which have influenced employee withdrawal behaviours, key concepts from the organisational withdrawal, morale and psychology literature were collated to formulate an understanding of withdrawal behaviour, and of the impact that low morale exerts on specific behaviours.

The hypotheses generated built upon previous research by Azjen & Madden (1986), Hanisch & Hulin (1990, 1991), Blau (1994), Johns (1994a), Harrison & Shaffer (1994), and Johnsrud & Rosser (2002). Azjen & Madden (1986) demonstrated that intentions were a good proxy for actual behavioural assessments. The concept of withdrawal behaviours as defined by Hulin (1991), covered "the set of behaviors that dissatisfied individuals enact to avoid the work situation" (p476). These behaviours included employee absenteeism, turnover intentions and lateness. The current study utilised aspects of these behaviours, and additionally investigated employee behavioural intent regarding the enactment of minimal work, internal transfers, and exit behaviours.

Johnsrud *et al.* (2000) found that morale was based largely upon individual perceptions, and these perceptions were reflections of the values and norms of an organisation. Johnsrud (1996) had previously proposed that morale could be represented by an "umbrella" notion, which included in addition to satisfaction with the work environment, such attributes as enthusiasm, commitment or loyalty to the institution, willingness to work, and dedication to common goals.

Johnsrud & Rosser (1999b) suggested that withdrawing from work stemmed from more than just personal or social reasons alone. They found that work related factors outside of an employee's control (such as one's job) affected their morale and, in turn, influenced their work withdrawal behaviours. Given Johnsrud's (1996) clear demonstration of the connection between intention to behave and low morale, the present study extended Johnsrud & Rosser's (2002) research and additionally tested the enactment of withdrawal behaviours with respect to low morale.

The current research extended the self-serving bias research regarding absenteeism by Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994), and applied this theory to the four additional withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, internal transfers and exiting the organisation), by comparing employees' self-reports of behavioural intent against their perceptions of their colleagues' behavioural intent. These five forms of withdrawal behaviours were defined as part of 'withdrawal of labour' in the present thesis.

The present research considered the arguments for withdrawal behaviours to be studied either separately (Blau, 1998 and Johns, 1998), or as part of multi-item behavioural constructs (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Hanisch *et al.*, 1998), and utilised quantitative statistics to empirically assess the validity of behavioural factor constructs. A further focus examined whether the withdrawal behaviours clustered together in covert and overt factors (constructs) from an individual cognitive perspective, rather than from an organisational management perspective.

The withdrawal behaviours were explored via a questionnaire, which included sets of behavioural intention questions, and an amended morale survey developed from Johnsrud's (1996) original instrument. The set of behavioural intention questions used in the present survey instrument were drawn from the surveyed literature. Additionally, rather than utilising a limited cohort sample group, the present study surveyed public sector employees across different administrative levels from multiple State government departments within South Australia.

Hypotheses were formulated to answer the gaps in research regarding the relationships concerning employees' intentions to participate in workplace

withdrawal behaviours under conditions of low morale. Hypothesis one proposed that employee ratings of self-reported intentions for withdrawal behaviours would be lower for self, when compared with their perceptions reported for others. Previous theories regarding self-serving bias and ego protection as espoused by Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994), were established in relation to the single withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism, in which employees rated their likelihood to engage in absence behaviour as significantly less so compared with their perceptions of their colleagues engaging in absence activities. This relationship of self-serving bias in relation to absenteeism behaviour was observed in the present study's employees, thus supporting the previous findings by Johns (1994a) and Harrison & Shaffer (1994).

The present study extended the work of those authors, and determined that such a relationship also existed when applied to alternative withdrawal behaviours, whereby such a phenomenon also existed for the withdrawal behaviours of minimal work, lateness and internal transfers, but that the relationship was not significant for exiting behaviour. The present study also established, that based on the mean scores for self, employees indicated that from the five withdrawal behaviours under investigation, they were less likely to enact minimal work, lateness, absence and exiting, but were more likely to transfer internally when experiencing low morale. Conversely, the mean scores from the reports for others indicated that employees had the perception that their colleagues (when experiencing low morale) would likely engage in minimal work, lateness, absence and transfer behaviour, but that they would less likely exit the organisation.

Previous literature debate has questioned whether withdrawal behaviours should be studied as individual withdrawal measures (Blau, 1998 and Johns, 1998) or collectively as composite measures (Hanisch *et al* 1998). The results from the first hypothesis lent support for Blau (1998) and Johns' (1998) arguments, whereby if one tested the present study's withdrawal indices as an aggregated body, then the non significant finding regarding the exiting behavioural intentions of employees might not have been identified.

One method for increasing correlations among variables was the creation of multi-item behavioural constructs, as proposed by Hanisch & Hulin (1990/1991) and

Hanisch *et al.,* (1998). They developed two organisational withdrawal constructs, namely job and work withdrawal, which were the composite of individual variables such as absence and turnover. This approach was critiqued by Blau (1998) and Johns (1998), with Blau (1998) citing objections, based on conceptual and methodological issues, with Hanisch and colleagues' research.

Although Blau (1998) preferred studying withdrawal behaviours as individual measures, he was not opposed to aggregation. However, he questioned which specific variables should be included in those constructs, and suggested that additional withdrawal behaviours such as transfer behaviour could be included. Johns (1998) agreed with many of Blau's (1998) methodological criticisms, also citing concern regarding methods of aggregation.

Hanisch *et al.* (1998) defended their withdrawal constructs on both conceptual and empirical grounds. They reviewed their previous research along with a discussion of the rationale for applying aggregation to withdrawal measures. Hanisch *et al.* (1998) believed that the advantage and underling principal for studying aggregated withdrawal behaviours was that the sum of a set of multiple measures was a "more stable and representative estimator than any single measure" (p 467). Although not entirely opposed to creating composite constructs in principle, Johns (1998) proposed that further theoretical and empirical justification was thus required.

Based on the above arguments, the current research examined the five withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, transfers and exit) collectively and separately, which was an arguable strength of the present research. In examining the concept of individual employee withdrawal and multi-item behavioural constructs, the current research proposed two "natural" groupings based on an individual psychological perspective (forming covert and overt behavioural constructs) rather than an organisational perspective, to further explore the underlying arguments as debated by Blau (1998), Johns (1998) and Hanisch *et al.* (1998).

Hence, hypothesis two proposed that covert and overt factors of intention to withdraw labour would be found in employee reports for self and reports for

others. The present study established that three behaviours (minimal work, lateness and absence) clustered together as a behavioural factor for both the reports for self, and the reports for others. However, no overt behavioural factor was identified in either the self or others reports, hence the behaviours of transferring and exiting were seen as being separate from one another. Interestingly, a pattern of behavioural enactment (perhaps choice) by employees, similar to the results from hypothesis, one was observed.

Thus, the present research found merit for both theoretical schools of thought, whereby the set of 'covert behaviours' formed a factor as hypothesised, which gave support to Hanisch *et al.*'s (1998) proposal for aggregate behavioural constructs. Conversely, the 'overt behaviours' of transfers and exit loaded separately from each other and that of the covert factor group, which was in contrast to the hypothesised relationship. In his critique of Hanisch and colleagues work, Blau (1998) proposed that job transfer behaviour might appropriately belong as part of a multi-item withdrawal behavior construct. Laczo & Hanisch (1999) considered Blau's proposals and forwarded an assumption that transfers, with turnover intent, should be categorised as part of their work withdrawal construct. However, they did not actually empirically test this proposal.

Thus, the present study extended the proposal by Laczo & Hanisch (1999), and actually empirically tested whether internal transfers factored with exit behaviour to form as part of a particular withdrawal construct. It was found that the withdrawal behaviours of internal transfers and exiting should be considered as individual behaviours, and not as part of an overt factor construct, supporting Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) arguments for withdrawal behaviours to be investigated individually. However, this present finding went against the proposal by Blau (1998) and the assumption by Laczo & Hanisch (1999) that internal transfer behaviour belonged as part of either a work withdrawal construct (Blau 1998) or job withdrawal construct (Laczo & Hanisch (1999) which were originally developed by Hanisch & Hulin (1990/1991). Thus the present research proposes that the withdrawal behaviour variable of internal transfers does not appear to factor in a withdrawal construct in combination with exiting behaviour.

Consequently, this finding led to the third hypothesis of the present study, which tested whether Johns' (1994a) self serving bias and ego protective theories would be observed if applied to withdrawal behavioural constructs. Additionally, this hypothesis also considered the theoretical proposals by Johnsrud (1996) which clearly demonstrated a connection between employee intention for behavioral enactment and low morale. Thus, the present study questioned whether employees' self-reports of behavioural intent were likely to rate overt behaviours higher than covert behaviours, and their reports for others were likely to rate covert behaviours higher than overt behaviours.

The present research provided empirical evidence which demonstrated that employees who were experiencing low morale self-reported a lower likelihood of intention to perform covert behaviours, whereas they self-reported a higher likelihood of intention to enact the behaviours of transferring and exiting the organisation. Conversely, when asked to report on the intentions of their colleagues, they rated their colleagues intentions regarding the likelihood to perform covert behaviours as higher, and rated their colleagues' likelihood regarding their intentions to enact transfer and exit behaviour within the organisation as lower.

This finding lent support for the phenomenon of self-serving bias and ego protection in regards to employee behavioural intent being observed within multi-item withdrawal behavioural constructs. Thus, the present research uniquely proposes a conglomeration, linking behavioural intention (Azjen & Madden (1986), low employee morale (Johnsrud, 1996) and the enactment of self-serving bias as part of an ego protective mechanism (Blau 1994, Harrison & Schaffer 1994) in the context of multi-item behaviour withdrawal constructs (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990/1991).

The present research additionally employed MANOVA statistical testing to establish whether certain demographic variables might predict withdrawal of labour in the sample population for both the employee self reported intentions and the employee perceptions regarding their colleagues' intentions (reports for others).

The employee self-reports indicated an interactional relationship between education, position and absence behaviour. The reports for others indicated seven significant interactional findings, which included an almost exact relationship (in regards to the observed patterns of behaviour) between the withdrawal behaviours of minimal work and absence in their relation to workplace position, and education and position. Additionally, significant interactional relationships between transfer behaviour, gender, education and position, and exiting behaviour in relation to gender and education, and exiting behaviour in relation to education, position and age were also observed.

The lessor number of relationships observed in the reports for self when compared with the greater magnitude in the number of relationships demonstrated from the reports for others, may also provide support for the theory of ego protection and employee self serving biases as espoused by Johns (1994a). The relative paucity of peer literature which has considered demographic variables against self versus others intentions to perform withdrawal behaviours has made comparisons between the present demographic findings and that of the wider literature difficult.

BENEFITS, LIMITATIONS, THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS FROM THE RESEARCH

Throughout the course of this research, several benefits and limitations became evident with regard to the design of the study and that of the reviewed literature. As with any empirical research, some limitations are unavoidable and need to be recognised to improve future research.

A limitation which has been identified by both the wider literature and that of the present research is the need for consistency in the approaches utilised when analysing data, in order to make more meaningful comparisons across research findings. Historically, the wider withdrawal literature has often adopted correlation and regression analysis in their research approaches when investigating withdrawal behavioural enactment in the workplace. Contemporarily, the use of Paired t-tests, Principal Factor Analyses, ANOVA and MANOVA statistical approaches might improve validity and robustness when examining individual behaviours and withdrawal behavioural constructs.

The present research adopted such an approach, which was a strength of the study. Methodological limitations identified in previous studies have included the use of small sample populations, niche sampling of populations such as university staff (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991 and Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002), and age group constraints (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991). Confounding factors such as these may lead to distortions in research findings. Thus, the current study aimed to improve these types of limitations by employing a wider population sample, and non-selectively investigated withdrawal behaviour in the South Australian public service across multiple departments and job classifications. However, it may be argued that such a population still represents a niche sample, and thus the findings of the present research may be similarly distorted if their meanings were extrapolated to national or international populations levels.

There may also be broader limitations from using a public sector sample when investigating workplace withdrawal behaviours. Because this study only accessed public service employees, it may not have been fully reflective or conclusive of the overall workforce attitudes and behaviours (such as those exhibited by employees from private organisations) in the wider community. Surveying individuals from the private sector would have been a worthwhile exercise in order to determine whether or not they shared similar perceptions with respect to withdrawal behaviours with their public sector counterparts.

The participants of this study, while representative of the employees within the South Australian government, constituted only a small sample of employees within Australia and the rest of the world. Hence, a broader sample may have provided different results. However, bearing in mind that past literature has predominately concentrated on participants from the private sector, a consequence of this, and a strength of the current research, was that it primarily concentrated on the South Australian public sector departments. Public sector employees have received limited empirical testing in the reviewed literature. Thus the present study added knowledge to the withdrawal research area from a public workforce point of view.

A potential strength of the current research was the use of the double control framework for selecting low morale. Respondents were firstly directed to think of

their responses in terms of having low morale. Secondly, the low morale respondents were subsequently selected after being assessed as actually having low morale as determined by the modified morale survey instrument. Questions were cued to perception of intent. This double control improved the likelihood of generating a true low morale basis for the respondent ratings in regards to the five withdrawal behaviours. As morale was not the primary focus of the present research, and was used as a means to identify relevant respondents in which to examine the withdrawal behaviours in question, morale as a theory and concept was not directly researched.

Johnsrud and her colleagues were amongst the few researchers who have examined the concept of morale against intentions of workplace withdrawal. However, they only investigated this against the single withdrawal behaviour of exiting. Given Johnsrud's (1996) demonstrated links between morale and behavioural intention, incorporation of Johnsrud's (1996) morale survey into the present study was seen as beneficial with respect to experimental design. This provided a ready means of examining employees' perceptions of intended behaviours whilst identifying employees with low morale. Consequently, the examination of intended withdrawal behaviours identified under conditions of low morale became the foundation for this present research, rather than morale itself.

When making comparisons between the present study's findings and that of the wider literature, other limitations have been identified. For example, when examining withdrawal behaviours, researchers have often examined them against alternative measures from an organisation commitment (Clegg 1983 and Blau, 1994), job satisfaction (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991), or a morale viewpoint (Johnsrud, 1996). Thus, the use of differing measures has contributed to the variations in findings observed between behavioural studies, which have often made meaningful or valid comparisons difficult.

A possible limitation of this current study was that it only investigated the five distinct withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, absenteeism, internal transfers and exiting the organisation). Additional deviant, passive, or malicious workplace behaviours might also exist which were not considered by the current research. This same argument might be applied to the demographic variables used

in the present study. However, as one increases the number of variables in any study, analysis would reveal increasingly complex and convoluted interactions which may become meaningless to the researcher.

As previously indicated, a strength of this study was the empirical analysis of certain assumptions previously proposed by the literature. An example would include the lack of empirical quantification of job transfer behaviour in relation to withdrawal constructs as proposed by Laczo & Hanisch (1999). Hence, an additional benefit of the current research was that careful testing of the membership of multi-item behavioural constructs as argued by Blau (1998) and Johns (1998) was undertaken.

Blau (1998) had previously suggested that categorisation of multiple items of behaviour should occur under more specific headings. Taking Blau's (1998) criticism into account, a benefit of the current research was that it moved toward questions of intention, and avoided broad organisational labels by relabelling groups of withdrawal variables more specifically. The formation of the multi-item behavioural constructs (covert and overt) from an individual cognitive perspective by the current research, may have simplified the category terminology, which in turn, may have reduced the types of ambiguity as criticised by Blau (1998).

The current research demonstrated that from an individual cognitive perspective, a covert factor group (minimal work, lateness and absenteeism) emerged. It additionally revealed that the withdrawal behaviour variable of internal transfers did not appear to factor in a withdrawal construct in combination with exiting behaviour. Thus a major benefit from the present study is that it has clarified some of the issues regarding the formulation of multi-item behavioural constructs and added new knowledge to the body of existing withdrawal behaviour research.

A limitation of the present research was that it did not consider the various withdrawal behaviours against actual retrospective estimates or organisational records, and alternatively examined self-reports of intentions to perform the withdrawal behaviours. However, access to records regarding employee attendances or withdrawal behaviours is becoming near impossible to obtain due to privacy, employee confidentiality or human rights issues (Johns, 1994b).

This limitation was certainly found in the public service of South Australia. Even if such records were accessible, they may not have been true or intact reflections of the behavioural enactments due to recording biases by managers or administration, or due to missing data.

Additionally, there are problems in defining and recording certain withdrawal behaviours. An example would include quantifying the behaviours of lateness (Koslowsky, 2000) or minimal work (as examined in the present study) in the workplace. After reflecting on these issues, the current research alternatively investigated employees' self-reported intentions for the behaviours in question via surveys, as the measurement of intentions had been argued as being a favourable method to utilise (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) when examining unfavourable withdrawal processes.

There are several benefits with the use of self-perception surveys. Furthermore, actual records may not reflect or predict future employee behaviour, whereas intention to behave may reflect an employee's current and future perception of the available behavioural choices more accurately. The use of intended behaviour in the current research may have contributed to a higher response rate from employees and enabled consideration of the participants' perceptions of their own behaviour and the behaviour of others.

As the current research relied solely on the use of surveys, these could have been criticised as being limited in their ability to estimate behaviours wherever feelings, opinions or beliefs are concerned (Kumar, 1999 and Neuman, 2000). While responses to the questions were recorded in the database as accurately as possible, it may have been useful to clarify or expand upon the rating responses for the selected withdrawal behaviours through verbal explanations from personal interviews or focus groups. This may have enabled a more comprehensive analysis of the reasons for the enactment of the withdrawal behaviours.

However, limitations with the use of interview or focus group research approaches include the fact that they are potentially cumbersome and costly with respect to time and financial constraints, which would likely have reduced the relevant organisational and respondent participation, and thus the sample sizes for

statistical analysis. Additionally, there are also issues with confidentially, potential selection and interpretive biases with interview techniques. The benefit of the present research approach was that many of these issues were avoided.

Thus, the use of a survey instrument presented a methodological advantage, as legal access to employees' personal records were likely to be virtually impossible, and respondent interviews would likely have been biased by sensitivities to the topic of the questions asked. Additionally, interview responses of employees might be influenced by biases such as fear of reprisal, if their association with such a study might potentially identify those participants. Other biases might include those exerted by an interviewer who may skew the phrasing of the questions asked, or the word choices used, or probed interviewees in order to elicit the "desired response" for their particular study.

As the survey instrument was presented to a wide range of participants from a potentially diverse multicultural background, there may have been interpretative biases such as an understanding of English, which may have affected the employees' abilities to respond accurately to the questions of the survey. Additionally, cultural backgrounds may influence the responses to withdrawal behaviours, as particular behaviours might be viewed as being more acceptable to certain cultures. For example, late arrival to work might be seen as being a more acceptable behaviour in the Middle Eastern culture (Manrai & Manrai, 1995). Whilst these influences may exist, the use of aggregate statistical testing of the data from a larger sample population (as used by the present research) tends to reduce any such bias (Fields, 2005).

A further limitation which has been previously identified by the literature related to the definitions and terminologies used by research groups. The terms of transfers and minimal work are still ambiguous in terms of their definitions, which may indicate reasons why there has been limited research concerning their specific enactment. Transfers may have been included under more broad definitions of turnover by past literature (Mobley, 1977), which may explain the paucity of investigation as a specific individual behaviour.

Even when considering the more contemporary literature that has addressed assumptions regarding transfer behaviour (Blau, 1998 and Laczo & Hanisch, 1999), there has been ambiguity as to an exact definition of transfer behaviour, and thus there may be different views as to the true meaning of this term. For example, after consideration of the government structure which respondents were sourced from for the current study, transfer behaviour may potentially belong to three hypothetical categories such as; (1) within work unit; (2) within department or division; and (3) within the organisation as a whole (i.e. same employer). This obviously may have implications for future research in the area, particularly those involving multi-item behavioural constructs, whereby the findings of the current research indicated that transfers were found not to be associated with exit behaviour.

An implication from the findings of the present research is that transfer terminology across the literature needs to be more specific to avoid misinterpretation to allow comparison between studies. Additionally, the definition of "turnover" may also need to be refined by the literature, as the present study has demonstrated that the behaviour of exiting the organisation did not factor with the behaviour of transferring within the organisation.

A strength of the current research approach was that the behaviours of "transfers" and "exit" were assigned more specific definitions, which were outlined to the employees completing the survey. To reduce ambiguity and misinterpretation, the description of transfers in the current study was "apply for internal transfers", which meant, "applying for other positions within your department". Additionally, the description of turnover in the current study was "exit the organisation", which meant, "resign altogether".

A factor, which may have limited the comparison between the findings of the current research with that of the wider literature, related to the demographics which were selected. A consequence of this was that two of the specific demographics selected by the current research (position and education) were more limited in their capacity to be compared with the wider literature. This is in comparison with certain demographics which the present research did not consider, such as tenure and number of dependent children, which the contemporary meta-analyses have shown to be more significant variables.

As explained previously, the nature of bureaucracy in the government departments presented another set of obstacles in the research design. This included constraints when trying to gain approvals from departments to participate, and of the impacts that this had on the time and resources available to the researcher. This would most likely present as a similar limitation for any future comparative studies using a similar sample cohort from the public service.

However, the demographics investigated by the present study were negotiated with those government departments which participated in the research, being specific variables of interest to the researcher, but were not demographics which the participating departments considered had "been done to death". Without negotiation regarding certain demographics, access to survey their staff may not have been granted. However, certain demographic scales were improved in the present study design, particularly in relation to age, where more varied age groups were examined in comparison with much of the contemporary empirical literature.

Thus, the demographics investigated added to the wider literature, particularly in terms of the interactions found which may be reflective of the public work force sample investigated. These results may have practical implications for the workplace environment, at both a management and government level.

From a government perspective, a significant proportion (40%) of the employees who participated in the research indicated, via the amended morale survey, that they were presently experiencing low morale. Considering the fact that multiple departments participated in the study, this indicated that low morale amongst employees was most likely a widespread phenomenon throughout the government departments of South Australia. In accepting the well documented empirical findings from both the present research and that of the wider literature of the responses of employees when experiencing the condition of low morale, the practical and financial implications of such a significant proportion of employees displaying low morale must also be significant.

The overall results would indicate that employees would most likely enact covert type behaviours in addition to internal transfer behaviour when unhappy, and despite this, the intention reports indicate that they would not exit from the

organisation as a whole. The implication from this is that the unhappy employee who may be enacting unfavourable workplace behaviours may be likely to transfer to an alternative unit or department, thus the problem may just be recirculated between departments or units. Previous research by the present author has demonstrated that a barrier to entry for government trainees has been the high number of static employees or re-deployees above them who are reluctant to leave. (Cvijetic, 2000). Thus, the ability of a new graduate or trainee to join government ranks may be limited, with the public service maintaining a static and potentially unhappy pool of less productive workers.

The present research has identified certain demographics of employees which may be more likely to engage in unfavourable workplace withdrawal behaviours when experiencing low morale. The implication from this is that unit or departmental managers must realise that changes in individual employee morale will result in significant intentions by their employees to perform those undesirable behaviours, most likely reducing workplace efficiency, productivity and harmony amongst its employees. This may then impact upon group level morale (Lindgren, 1982). Thus regular estimations of morale at the individual level may be beneficial in identifying the early warning signs for workplace withdrawal, which might allow for interventional procedures to be started, reducing the enactment of future withdrawal behaviours.

FUTURE RESEARCH

A limitation of the studies which have proposed self-serving bias and ego protective theories, were that they only examined self-reports versus others (Johns, 1994a) or self reports versus perceived organisational norms (Harrison & Shaffer, 1994) against the single withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism. In contrast, the present study examined self-reports and reports for others against an additional four withdrawal behaviours (minimal work, lateness, internal transfers and exit). As there have been no directly comparable studies concerning these additional withdrawal behaviours and self-serving biases, future research needs to explore the impact which self-serving biases might exert on these, or any additional withdrawal behaviours.

Future research might also consider the addition of qualitative research (interviews) to more fully ascertain the cognitive reasons behind employees' decision-making choices in relation to withdrawal behaviours. This possibly may uncover psychological insights behind the perceived workplace choices in withdrawing labour under conditions of low morale. Additionally, it would be interesting to extend the present research findings by examining a cohort of high morale individuals, and ask questions regarding employee intentions for behavioural enactment against both high and low morale, to see if reciprocal relationships to that of the present research would be found.

Furthermore, research should continue to address the issues regarding ambiguity with terminology and definitions to improve consistency across studies, particularly in relation to the terms of colleagues, minimal work, exit, transfer and turnover. Longitudinal studies (if practically possible) may establish the continuity of the responses and observe changes that occur over time (Zikmund, 1997). Hence, their use may be a consideration for any follow-up research regarding public sector cohorts.

Research in relation to demographic variables might also include the previously established variables of tenure, and number of children, which have been identified by contemporary meta-analyses as potentially significant demographics in relation to withdrawal. It would be interesting to include extra withdrawal behaviours as part of a greater factor analysis study, and examine whether passive or deviant workplace behaviours also factor as part of the withdrawal constructs. An additional element for future research might also consider employee ethics (Tyson, 1992) in relation to withdrawal of labour.

While this research assessed broad patterns of withdrawal behaviour, a future approach might consider respondents' preferences for enacting withdrawal behaviours. Such a continuum approach might elucidate better understanding regarding people's intentions for withdrawal of labour under conditions of low morale. Future research might investigate respondents' preferences to establish whether a true continuum linkage between withdrawal behaviours exists. For example, lateness might lead to absenteeism, which might result in an increase in transfers, and so on.

One might also expand the scales used for the demographics of education and position, and include scales of seniority in their classifications. Improving the scales and measures used in the amended survey instrument would also be prudent. Furthermore, the use of consistent statistical analyses, the use of the same scales, and the use of common terminology should also lead to improved comparisons between research findings. Further verification of the self-reports being a good proxy for actual enactment might also compare employee self-intentions against organisational (government) records if they became accessible.

Research improvements might also include the use of bigger sample sizes, more precise questioning, the expansion of the study to different sectors and compare public government versus private, or different industry sectors, such as mining, medical or financial. In addition, application of this study to include national and international comparisons (incorporating cultural perceptions of attitudes) might also elucidate interesting insights regarding the intentions and choices made by employees in regards to withdrawal of labour.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE RESEARCH FIELD

The current research identified five withdrawal behaviours. It then considered the perceptions of employees' own intentions, compared with their perception of the intentions of others, in enacting the five withdrawal behaviours. Additionally, the current research used morale as a more global indicator, compared with the traditional use of single measures (such as job satisfaction) when testing withdrawal behaviours. Compared with other researchers, who have predominantly examined employees from the private sector, the present study used respondents from a public service background. The current research compressed three studies into one survey, creating an efficiency in research technique that enables ready comparisons across the hypotheses due to the use of exactly the same sample population. Thus, the current study improved research knowledge via a unique aggregation of the multiple theories encompassing employee withdrawal behaviours, multi-item behavioural constructs, self-serving biases and low employee morale to describe the concept of "Withdrawal of Labour".

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APPENDIX A

Morale questionnaire (Johnsrud, 1996)

CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY OF THE UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATIVE, PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL STAFF (APTS)

This survey instrument has been developed to examine morale among administrative, professional and technical staff (APTS) at the University of Hawai'i. We describe morale as a state of mind regarding one's job. It includes satisfaction, commitment, loyalty and a sense of common purpose.

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following factors contribute to your morale by circling the appropriate number. For example, a response rate of "1" indicates that this factor has a negative impact on your morale. A response rate of "5" indicates that this factor has a positive impact on your morale. If the factor does not apply to you, indicate by circling N/A (not applicable).

At the end of each section we will ask you to provide the top three factors that affect your morale and to provide any additional comments.

Please rate these factors in terms of the degree of their impact on YOUR morale.

	Negative Impact 1	2	3	4	Positive Impact 5	N/A
Institutional Factors						
1. Support for professional activities	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
2. Opportunity for career development	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
3. Opportunity for promotions	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
4. Clear performance criteria	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
5. Hiring practices	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
6. Hiring for external candidates	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
7. Workload distribution	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
8. Staff turnover	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
9. Ethnic diversity of staff	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
10. Gender diversity of staff	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
11. Federal government mandates	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
12. State government intervention	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
13. Bureaucratic red tape	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
14. Institutional sex discrimination (subtle and/or overt)	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
15. Institutional racial/ethnic discrimination (subtle and/or overt)	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
16. Program reviews	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
17. Budget reviews						
18. Retirement plans/benefits	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

19. Age discrimination	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
20. Revenue/resources for your unit	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
21. Parking	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
22. Physical work environment	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
23. Reputation of the University of Hawai'i	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
24. Ethical conduct in unit	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
25. Salary	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
26. Other_____	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

27. Which of the factors listed above are most important to you as an APT?

1st Important _____

2nd Important _____

3rd Important_____

Please comment on these important factors:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please rate these factors in terms of the degree of their impact on YOUR morale:

	Negative Impact				Positive Impact	
	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Professional factors						
28. Relationship with faculty	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
29. Relationship with students	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
30. Relationship with the public	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
31. Relationship with senior administrators	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
32. Degree of trust from supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
33. Recognition for expertise	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
34. Recognition for contribution	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
35. Sufficient guidance	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
36. Pressures to perform	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
37. Communication from supervisors	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
38. Communication between units	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
39. Importance of my job to institution	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
40. Co-workers performance	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
41. Within departmental relationships	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
42. Cross-department relations	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
43. Sense of teamwork	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
44. Racial/ethnic stereotyping	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
45. Racial/ethnic harassment	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

46. Sex-role stereotyping	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
47. Sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
48. Department politics	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
49. Availability of mentoring	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
50. Feedback to performance	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
51. Authority to make decisions	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
52. Support from collective bargaining unit	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
53. Visibility in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
54. Leadership of your unit	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
55. Institutional leadership	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
56. Other_____	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

57. Which of the previous factors are most important to you as an APT?
lst important_____
2nd Important_____
3rd Important_____
Please comment on these important factors:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your work.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
58. There is too little variety in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
59. There's a common purpose in my unit.	1	2	3	4	5
60. There must be better places to work.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I would like more freedom on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
62. I am satisfied with the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about the institution.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
63. I am loyal to the institution.	1	2	3	4	5
64. My opinions are valued.	1	2	3	4	5
65. This institution values its employees.	1	2	3	4	5
66. This institution is a caring organization.	1	2	3	4	5
67. This is a fair institution.	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate your level of morale with respect to your experience on your campus.

Low morale 1 2 3 4 5 High morale

68. Do you have plans to leave your current position?
Yes_____No_____
69. Do you feel "stuck" in your position?
Yes_____No_____

Demographic information

70. At which campus are you employed?_____
71. What years have you been employed on your campus? 19_____ to 19_____
72. Which of the following most closely describes your administrative unit?
Academic Affairs_____ External Affairs_____
Student Affairs_____ Other (please specify)_____
Business/Facilities Affairs_____
73. Please state the title of your position/job: _____
74. What is your pay range? (01-17) _____
75. What is your gender? Female_____Male_____
76. What is the year of your birth? _____
77. What is your race/ethnicity? (indicate group with which you most closely identify):
_____
78. In your work unit, are you a minority by gender? Yes_____No_____
79. In your work unit, are you a minority by race or ethnicity? Yes_____No_____

80. What kind of staff development or training would be most helpful to you?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please feel free to provide any additional comments on the back of this page.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!

Please return this survey in the enclosed envelope to:
Dr. Linda K. Johnsrud, Wist Hall, College of Education

APPENDIX B

The survey instrument, correspondence to departments and participants

***Danka Barlow** B. Bus (Hons)*
GPO BOX [redacted]
Tel: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

[Date]

Dear Employee,

I am a PhD student at the University of South Australia, doing research into government employee perceptions of working in their environment. For this evaluation I need responses from a wide range of staff members across government. I would be grateful if you would participate in the study.

This survey form includes a number of measures, which have previously been used many times in research of this type in government. It is not a test of intelligence, nor are there any trick questions.

The study is **confidential**. At no time will the results of individual staff members be available to anybody. In fact, as you can see in the questionnaire, it is impossible to identify any individual. Individual results will NOT be released to the department, only a summary of the statistics, which will not identify any individual. Please be assured that participation in this study is completely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaires will be recorded to CD and stored/locked at the university for a period of 7 years. The original questionnaires will be destroyed after data conversion to CD.

This survey provides you with an opportunity to offer your perceptions about your workplace in a confidential manner. From the overall results my thesis may enable recommendations that improve your working conditions.

Any questions about any ethical issues regarding this project or about you rights as a participant, please feel free to contact the executive officer of the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of South Australia [redacted] (telephone [redacted])

In anticipation of your participation in the survey, please print off this survey and post your completed survey to me in a sealed departmental envelope addressed to [redacted] and return it to me as soon as possible. Your responses will be added to the database and the original questionnaire will be destroyed.

Should you have any other enquires regarding this survey, please feel free to contact me on [redacted] or any further need to consult on this research, please contact my Supervisor, Associate Professor Robert Heath on phone [redacted].

Thank you for your cooperation.
Yours faithfully

Danka Barlow B. Bus (Hons)

Please read the following questions below and circle your answer.

1. To which age group do you belong?

   Under 20 years
   Between 21 and 30 years
   Between 31 and 40 years
   Between 41 and 50 years
   Over 51 years

2. Your gender: Male Female

3. Have you completed a university degree? Yes No

If you are in a position that is not management and you are employed in a specific position eg (accountant, administrator, consultant, project officer etc) please select one of the bottom two categories. Thankyou.

4. Which category below does your current position pertain to?

   Senior Management
   Management
   Staff (more than 3 years of working experience)
   Staff (less than 3 years of working experience)

Please indicate the extent to which each of the following factors contributes to your morale by circling the appropriate number. For example, a response rate of "1" indicates that this factor has a negative impact on your morale. A response rate of "5" indicates that this factor has a positive impact on your morale. If the factor does not apply to you, indicate by circling N/A (not applicable).

	Please rate these factors in terms of the degree of their impact on YOUR morale.									
		Negative Impact	←				→	Positive Impact		
			1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
	Institutional Factors									
1	Support for professional activities		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
2	Opportunity for career development		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
3	Opportunity for promotions		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
4	Clear performance criteria		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
5	Hiring practices		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
6	Workload distribution		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
7	Staff turnover		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
8	Ethnic diversity of staff		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
9	Gender diversity of staff		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
10	Federal government mandates		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
11	State government intervention		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
12	Bureaucratic red tape		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
13	Sex discrimination (subtle and/or overt)		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
14	Racial/ethic discrimination (subtle and/or overt		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
15	Retirement plans/benefits		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
16	Age discrimination		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
17	Revenue/resources for your unit		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
18	Parking		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
19	Physical work environment		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
20	Reputation of your Department		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
21	Ethical conduct in your unit		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
22	Salary		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
23	Other		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	

	Please rate these factors in terms of the degree of their impact on YOUR morale.									
		Negative Impact	←				→	Positive Impact		
			1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
	Professional Factors									
24	Relationship with the public		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
25	Relationship with senior staff		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
26	Degree of trust from supervisor		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
27	Recognition for expertise		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
28	Recognition for contribution		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
29	Sufficient guidance		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
30	Pressures to perform		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
31	Communication from supervisors		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
32	Communication between units		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
33	Importance of my job to the Department		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
34	Co-workers performance		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
35	Within departmental relationships		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
36	Cross-department relations		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	

37	Sense of teamwork		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
38	Racial/ethnic stereotyping		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
39	Racial/ethnic harassment		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
40	Sex-role stereotyping		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
41	Sexual harassment		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
42	Department politics		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
43	Availability of mentoring		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
44	Feedback to performance		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
45	Authority to make decisions		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
46	Support from collective bargaining unit		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
47	Visibility in the organisation		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
48	Leadership of your unit		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
49	Departmental leadership		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	
50	Other		1	2	3	4	5		N/A	

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your work.										
		Strongly Disagree	←				→	Strongly Agree		
			1	2	3	4	5			
51	There is too little variety in my job.		1	2	3	4	5			
52	There's a common purpose in my unit.		1	2	3	4	5			
53	There must be better places to work.		1	2	3	4	5			
54	I would like more freedom on the job.		1	2	3	4	5			
55	I am satisfied with the work I do.		1	2	3	4	5			

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your department.										
		Strongly Disagree	←				→	Strongly Agree		
			1	2	3	4	5			
56	I am loyal to the department.		1	2	3	4	5			
57	My opinions are valued.		1	2	3	4	5			
58	This department values its employees.		1	2	3	4	5			
59	This department is a caring organisation.		1	2	3	4	5			
60	This is a fair organisation.		1	2	3	4	5			

Please indicate if YOU had low morale, which of the following behaviours YOU would do. (Please circle every one of the behaviours below from least likely to most likely.)										
		Least Likely	←				→	Most Likely		
			1	2	3	4	5			
61	Perform the minimal amount of work everyday (ie, put in very little effort)		1	2	3	4	5			
62	Come in to work late every day (ie not at work by the designated time)		1	2	3	4	5			
63	Be absent from work a lot. (ie take lots of sick leave when not ill, or not coming to work and using false excuses)		1	2	3	4	5			
64	Apply for internal transfers (applying for other positions within your department)		1	2	3	4	5			
65	Exit the organisation (ie resign altogether)		1	2	3	4	5			

Please indicate if YOUR COLLEAGUES had low morale which of the following behaviours do you think THEY would do.
(Please circle every one of the behaviours below from least likely to most likely.)

		Least Likely	←				→	Most Likely		
			1	2	3	4	5			
66	Perform the minimal amount of work everyday (ie, put in very little effort)		1	2	3	4	5			
67	Come in to work late every day (ie not at work by the designated time)		1	2	3	4	5			
68	Be absent from work a lot. (ie take lots of sick leave when not ill, or not coming to work and using false excuses)		1	2	3	4	5			
69	Apply for internal transfers (applying for other positions within your department)		1	2	3	4	5			
70	Exit the organisation (ie resign altogether)		1	2	3	4	5			

(71) Briefly outline other behaviours you would undertake should you feel unhappy in your workplace? (Please comment)

(72) What aspects of your workplace make you feel happy? (Please comment)

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!

Please return this survey to me when completed in a sealed envelope to:
Mrs Danka Barlow, PO BOX [redacted] as soon as possible.

***Danka Barlow** B. Bus (Hons)*
PO BOX [redacted]
Tel: [redacted]
E-mail: [redacted]

[Date]

[Organisation Details]

Dear, **[Organisational Rep]**

Re: PhD Research Project – Employee Morale and Withdrawal of Labour

Thank you for considering my proposal to conduct a PhD research project within your department. I have already received the support of many government departments in South Australia. I would be grateful to work with your department, having worked with them for several years.

I am currently undertaking a PhD in Business and Management at the University of South Australia, having completed my Bachelor of Business and Management degree with Honours in 2000. Since I have an interest in Human Resources and Organisational Psychology, I am hoping to conduct my research thesis in the area of employee morale and withdrawal of labour within the South Australian public sector.

I would like to focus on the personal opinions of various employees at all levels in your organisation, with regard to their morale and any possible intent to withdraw from work. Using surveys, I would like to investigate their attitudes and experiences and report on them, if any, which may be useful to your future development of human resource management policies and legislation. The project will also aim to address some underlying theoretical issues.

Any research project conducted by university staff and students is strictly monitored by senior staff and the University Human Research Ethics Committee. Methods and materials utilised during the study such as questionnaires would also be submitted for your approval prior to issuing them to participants. Participation in the study is voluntary. Care will be taken to ensure that no material that was circulated or published would contain information that would allow individual respondents to be identified without their explicit consent. The questionnaires will be recorded to CD and stored/locked at the university for a period of 7 years. The original questionnaires will be destroyed after data conversion to CD. Access to the summary statistical conclusions will be made available to your department if requested.

I have attached a draft questionnaire for your perusal, which gives an indication of the type of questions appearing in the survey instrument. These questions are subject to change depending on feedback from my supervisors and the participating agencies.

I would be grateful if you would consider this project and advise me of your decision, as well as providing details of an appropriate contact person with whom I may liaise during the course of my project.

Please contact my supervisor Associate Professor Robert Heath (telephone [redacted]) or my Associate Supervisor Dr Roger Monk (telephone [redacted]) should you have any enquiries concerning this request. Should you have any ethical concerns about this project please feel free to contact the executive officer of the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of South Australia, Ms Vicki Allan (telephone [redacted]).

I am also available on telephone [redacted] (home) or [redacted] (mobile) should you require any additional information. Please address all correspondence to me care of PO BOX [redacted].

As the university requires a short formal letter from you giving permission for me to conduct the survey in your department, I would very much appreciate this from you as soon as convenient.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Yours sincerely

Danka Barlow B. Bus (Hons)

APPENDIX C

SPSS output results for hypotheses and demographics

Hypothesis One:

Paired T-Test: Minimal work performed (self versus others)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	minimal work SELF	2.78	266	1.25	7.66E-02
	minimal work OTHERS	4.03	266	1.09	6.66E-02

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	minimal work SELF & minimal work OTHERS	266	.260	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	minimal work SELF - minimal work OTHER	-1.25	1.43	8.75E-02	-1.42	-1.08	-14.265	265	.000

Paired T-Test: Lateness (self versus others)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	lateness SELF	2.10	266	1.26	7.75E-02
	lateness OTHERS	3.79	266	1.22	7.46E-02

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	lateness SELF & lateness OTHERS	266	.276	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	lateness SELF - lateness OTHERS	-1.69	1.49	9.16E-02	-1.87	-1.51	-18.433	265	.000

Paired T-Test: Absenteeism (self versus others)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	absenteeism SELF	2.32	266	1.41	8.67E-02
	absenteeism OTHERS	4.08	266	1.09	6.67E-02

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	absenteeism SELF & absenteeism OTHERS	266	.342	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	absenteeism SELF - absenteeism OTHERS	-1.76	1.46	8.95E-02	-1.94	-1.59	-19.710	265	.000

Paired T-Test: Transfers within organisation (self versus others)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	transfers within organisation SELF	3.36	266	1.42	8.68E-02
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	3.68	266	1.28	7.82E-02

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	transfers within organisation SELF & transfers within organisation OTHERS	266	.269	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
air	transfers within organisation SELF - transfers within organisation OTHERS	-.33	1.63	1.00E-01	-.52	-.13	-3.272	265	.001

Paired T-Test: Exit the organisation (self versus others)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	exit organisation SELF	2.86	266	1.59	9.78E-02
	exit organisation OTHERS	2.69	266	1.46	8.97E-02

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	exit organisation SELF & exit organisation OTHERS	266	.285	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
r	exit organisation SELF - exit organisation OTHERS	.17	1.83	.11	-4.81E-02	.39	1.541	265	.125

Hypothesis Two:

Factor Analysis: Withdrawal Behaviours (Self)

Correlation Matrix

		minimal work SELF	lateness SELF	absenteeism SELF	transfers within organisation SELF	exit organisation SELF
Correlation	minimal work SELF	1.000	.527	.486	-.019	.227
	lateness SELF	.527	1.000	.509	-.079	.057
	absenteeism SELF	.486	.509	1.000	.015	.043
	transfers within organisation SELF	-.019	-.079	.015	1.000	.259
	exit organisation SELF	.227	.057	.043	.259	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.644
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	227.417
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
minimal work SELF	.382	.556
lateness SELF	.368	.567
absenteeism SELF	.331	.447
transfers within organisation SELF	8.286E-02	.127
exit organisation SELF	.129	.556

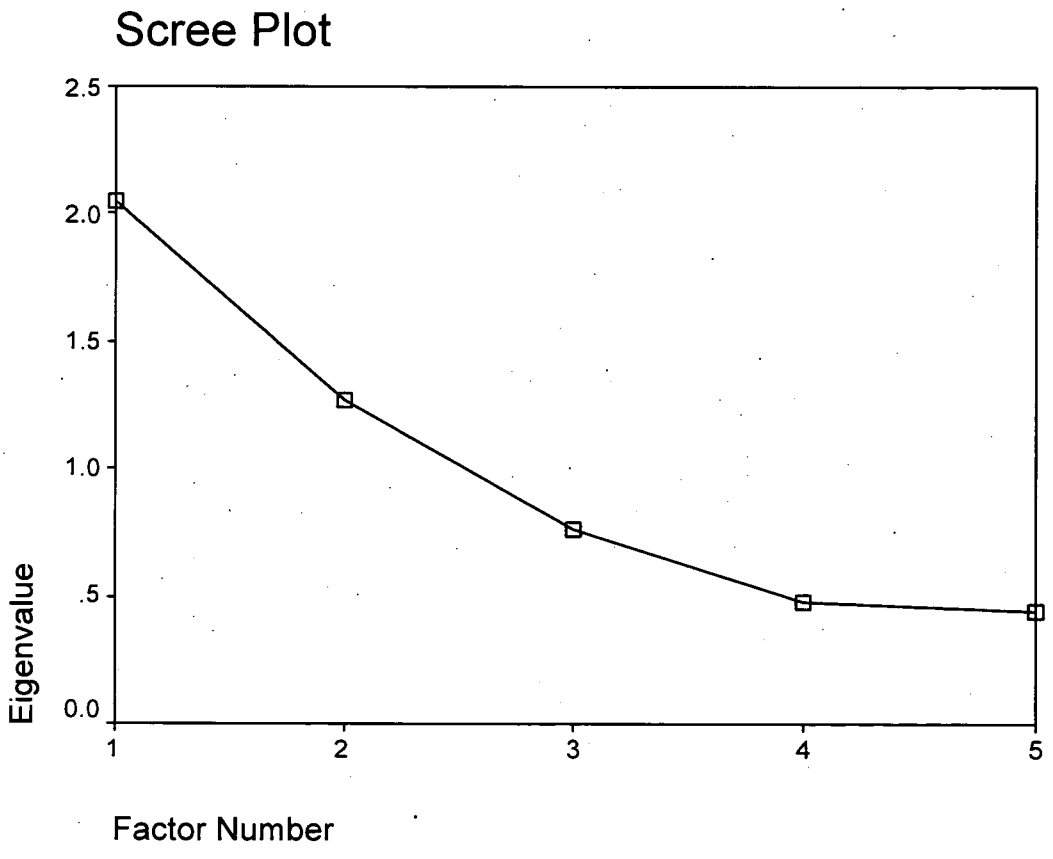
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	2.049	40.987	40.987	1.577	31.542	31.542	1.565
2	1.264	25.278	66.265	.675	13.510	45.052	.697
3	.764	15.282	81.548				
4	.480	9.603	91.150				
5	.442	8.850	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.



Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor	
	1	2
minimal work SELF	.744	
lateness SELF	.733	
absenteeism SELF	.658	
exit organisation SELF		.709
transfers within organisation SELF		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. Attempted to extract 2 factors. More than 25 iterations required. (Convergence=7.067E-03). Extraction was terminated.

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor	
	1	2
lateness SELF	.751	
minimal work SELF	.727	
absenteeism SELF	.669	
exit organisation SELF		.732
transfers within organisation SELF		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Structure Matrix

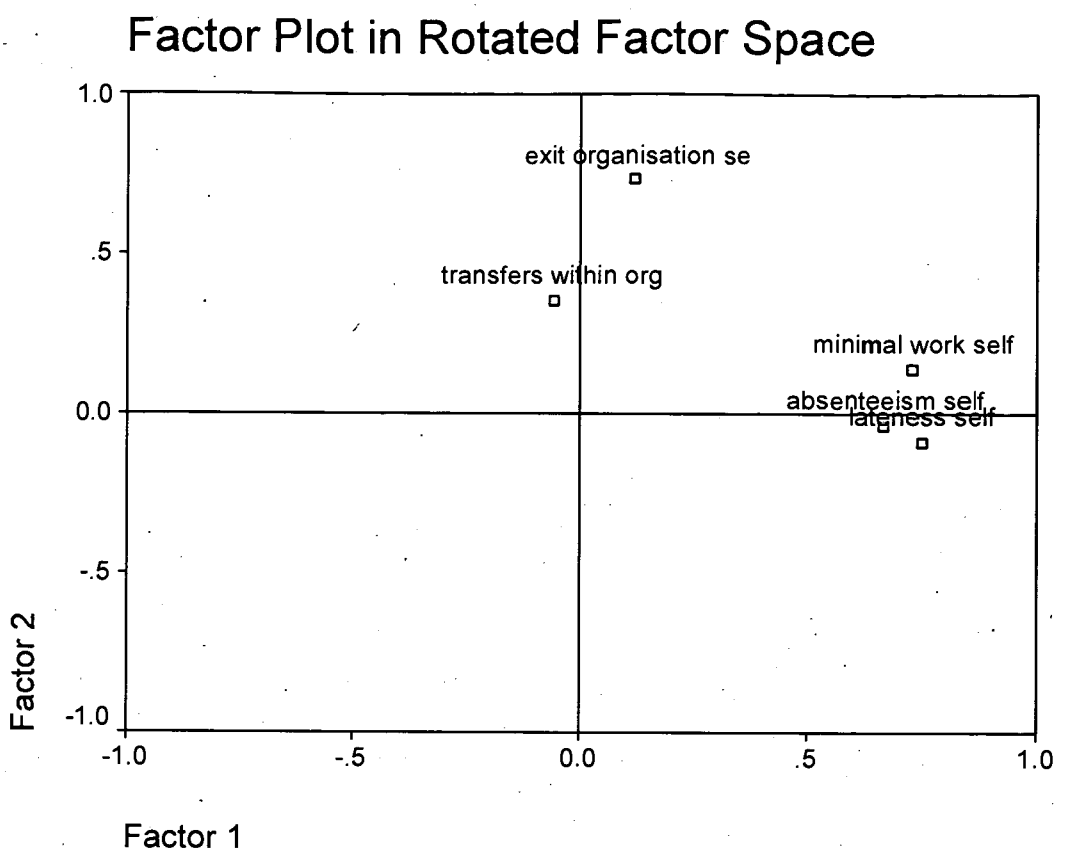
	Factor	
	1	2
lateness SELF	.748	
minimal work SELF	.732	
absenteeism SELF	.667	
exit organisation SELF		.736
transfers within organisation SELF		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2
1	1.000	3.665E-02
2	3.665E-02	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.


Factor Plot in Rotated Factor Space
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
exit organisation se
transfers within org
minimal work self
absenteeism self
lateness self
-1.0
-.5
0.0
.5
1.0
Factor 2
Factor 1

Reliability: Covert Behaviors (Self)

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
WL61	4.4135	5.4133	.5819	.6714
WL62	5.0940	5.2779	.5997	.6510
WL63	4.8759	4.8261	.5692	.6905

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 266.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .7532

Factor Analysis: Withdrawal Behaviours (Others)

Correlation Matrix

		minimal work OTHERS	lateness OTHERS	absenteeism OTHERS	transfers within organisation OTHERS	exit organisation OTHERS
Correlation	minimal work OTHERS	1.000	.675	.733	.080	-.040
	lateness OTHERS	.675	1.000	.686	.100	.022
	absenteeism OTHERS	.733	.686	1.000	.198	-.072
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	.080	.100	.198	1.000	.214
	exit organisation OTHERS	-.040	.022	-.072	.214	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.702
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	435.170
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
minimal work OTHERS	.596	.723
lateness OTHERS	.539	.617
absenteeism OTHERS	.627	.770
transfers within organisation OTHERS	.103	.367
exit organisation OTHERS	7.140E-02	.136

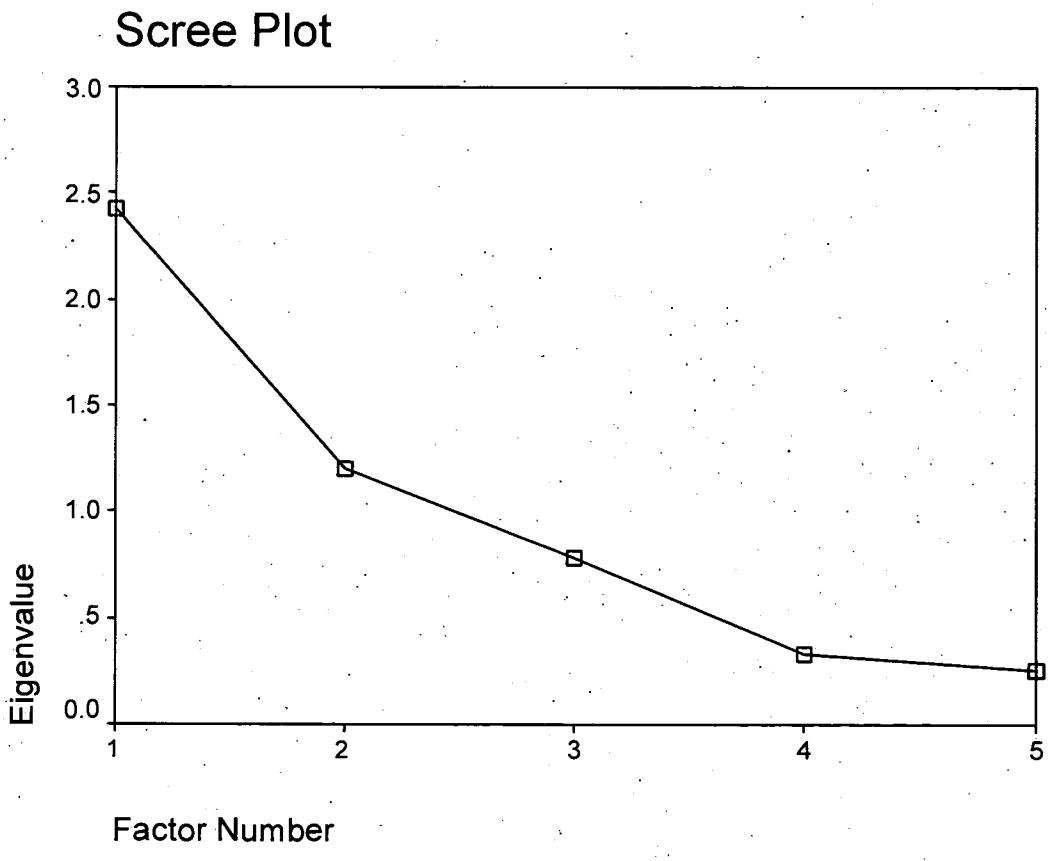
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	2.429	48.587	48.587	2.130	42.601	42.601	2.126
2	1.206	24.114	72.701	.483	9.660	52.261	.503
3	.783	15.662	88.364				
4	.330	6.607	94.970				
5	.251	5.030	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.



Factor Matrix[a]

	Factor	
	1	2
absenteeism OTHERS	.877	
minimal work OTHERS	.844	
lateness OTHERS	.785	
transfers within organisation OTHERS		.579
exit organisation OTHERS		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. Attempted to extract 2 factors. More than 25 iterations required. (Convergence=6.050E-03). Extraction was terminated.

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor	
	1	2
absenteeism OTHERS	.872	
minimal work OTHERS	.852	
lateness OTHERS	.784	
transfers within organisation OTHERS		.588
exit organisation OTHERS		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Structure Matrix

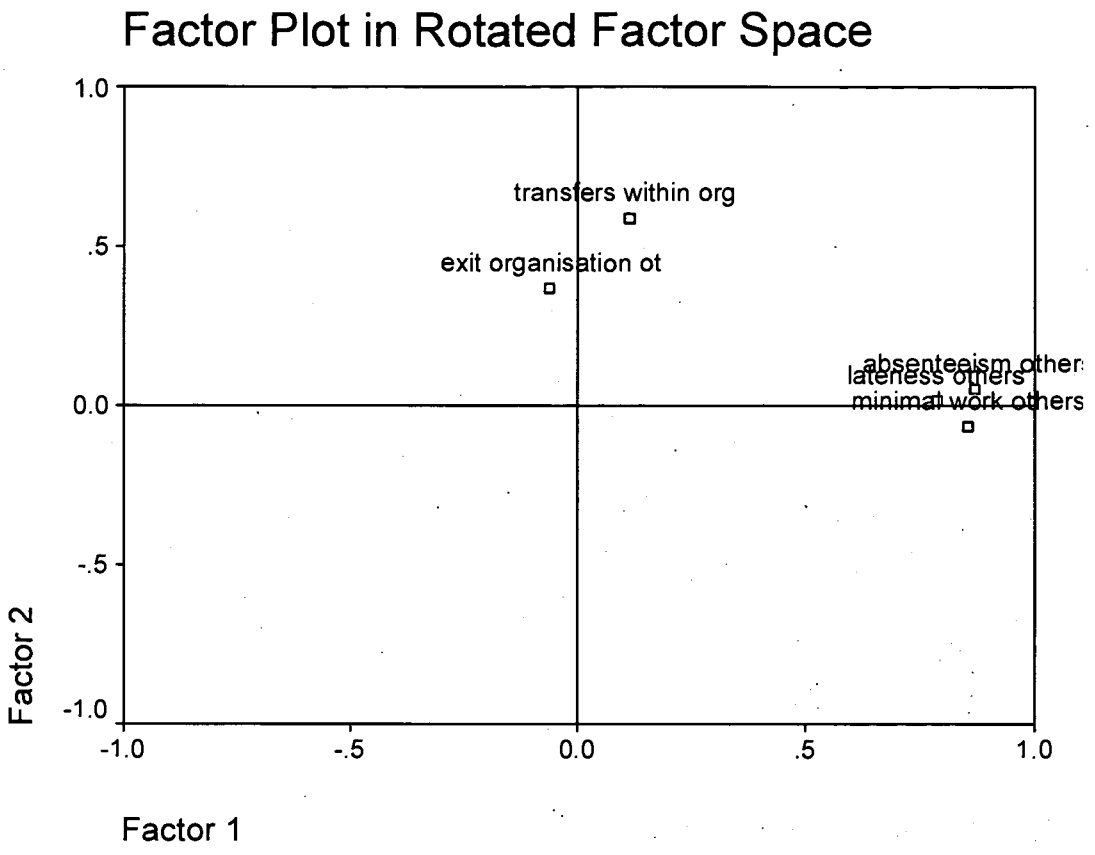
	Factor	
	1	2
absenteeism OTHERS	.876	
minimal work OTHERS	.848	
lateness OTHERS	.785	
transfers within organisation OTHERS		.595
exit organisation OTHERS		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2
1	1.000	6.321E-02
2	6.321E-02	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.



Reliability: Others Covert Behaviours

****** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis ******

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L P H A)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
CWL66	7.8647	4.4797	.7646	.8104
CWB67	8.1053	4.0945	.7307	.8458
CWL68	7.8120	4.4476	.7733	.8026

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 266.0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = .8715

Hypothesis Three:

Factorial Repeated Measures ANOVA (Two-Way)

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

SUBJECTS	BEHAVE	Dependent Variable
1	1	SELFCOV
	2	WL64
	3	WL65
2	1	OTHERCOV
	2	CWL69
	3	CWL70

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
self covert mean	2.40	1.07	266
transfers within organisation SELF	3.36	1.42	266
exit organisation SELF	2.86	1.59	266
others covert mean	3.96	1.01	266
transfers within organisation OTHERS	3.68	1.28	266
exit organisation OTHERS	2.69	1.46	266

Multivariate Tests[b]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
SUBJECTS	Pillai's Trace	.252	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.748	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.336	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.336	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
BEHAVE	Pillai's Trace	.226	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.774	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.293	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.293	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
SUBJECTS * BEHAVE	Pillai's Trace	.436	102.113[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.564	102.113[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.774	102.113[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.774	102.113[a]	2.000	264.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b.

Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: SUBJECTS+BEHAVE+SUBJECTS*BEHAVE

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity[b]

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon[a]		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
SUBJECTS	1.000	.000	0	.	1.000	1.000	1.000
BEHAVE	.983	4.434	2	.109	.984	.991	.500
SUBJECTS * BEHAVE	.988	3.128	2	.209	.988	.996	.500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

b.

Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: SUBJECTS+BEHAVE+SUBJECTS*BEHAVE

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SUBJECTS	Sphericity Assumed	131.240	1	131.240	89.083	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	131.240	1.000	131.240	89.083	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	131.240	1.000	131.240	89.083	.000
	Lower-bound	131.240	1.000	131.240	89.083	.000
Error(SUBJECTS)	Sphericity Assumed	390.408	265	1.473		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	390.408	265.000	1.473		
	Huynh-Feldt	390.408	265.000	1.473		
	Lower-bound	390.408	265.000	1.473		
BEHAVE	Sphericity Assumed	148.513	2	74.256	38.421	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	148.513	1.967	75.493	38.421	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	148.513	1.982	74.937	38.421	.000
	Lower-bound	148.513	1.000	148.513	38.421	.000
Error(BEHAVE)	Sphericity Assumed	1024.339	530	1.933		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1024.339	521.318	1.965		
	Huynh-Feldt	1024.339	525.184	1.950		
	Lower-bound	1024.339	265.000	3.865		
SUBJECTS * BEHAVE	Sphericity Assumed	213.302	2	106.651	94.209	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	213.302	1.977	107.907	94.209	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	213.302	1.991	107.107	94.209	.000
	Lower-bound	213.302	1.000	213.302	94.209	.000
Error(SUBJECTS*BEHAVE)	Sphericity Assumed	599.995	530	1.132		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	599.995	523.831	1.145		
	Huynh-Feldt	599.995	527.744	1.137		
	Lower-bound	599.995	265.000	2.264		

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	SUBJECTS	BEHAVE	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SUBJECTS	Linear		131.240	1	131.240	89.083	.000
Error(SUBJECTS)	Linear		390.408	265	1.473		
BEHAVE		Linear	43.850	1	43.850	20.355	.000
		Quadratic	104.663	1	104.663	61.164	.000
Error(BEHAVE)		Linear	570.873	265	2.154		
		Quadratic	453.467	265	1.711		
SUBJECTS * BEHAVE	Linear	Linear	201.185	1	201.185	183.291	.000
		Quadratic	12.117	1	12.117	10.388	.001
Error(SUBJECTS*BEHAVE)	Linear	Linear	290.871	265	1.098		
		Quadratic	309.124	265	1.167		

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intercept	15922.106	1	15922.106	5522.816	.000
Error	763.987	265	2.883		

Estimated Marginal Means

1. SUBJECTS

Estimates

Measure: MEASURE_1

SUBJECTS	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2.872	.055	2.764	2.980
2	3.445	.049	3.348	3.543

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) SUBJECTS	(J) SUBJECTS	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.574*	.061	.000	-.693	-.454
2	1	.574*	.061	.000	.454	.693

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.252	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
Wilks' lambda	.748	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
Hotelling's trace	.336	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000
Roy's largest root	.336	89.083[a]	1.000	265.000	.000

Each F tests the multivariate effect of SUBJECTS. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

2. BEHAVE

Estimates

Measure: MEASURE_1

BEHAVE	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	3.180	.052	3.078	3.283
2	3.521	.066	3.391	3.650
3	2.774	.075	2.626	2.922

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) BEHAVE	(J) BEHAVE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.340*	.080	.000	-.534	-.146
	3	.406*	.090	.000	.189	.623
2	1	.340*	.080	.000	.146	.534
	3	.746*	.085	.000	.541	.951
3	1	-.406*	.090	.000	-.623	-.189
	2	-.746*	.085	.000	-.951	-.541

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.226	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
Wilks' lambda	.774	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
Hotelling's trace	.293	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000
Roy's largest root	.293	38.645[a]	2.000	264.000	.000

Each F tests the multivariate effect of BEHAVE. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

3. SUBJECTS * BEHAVE

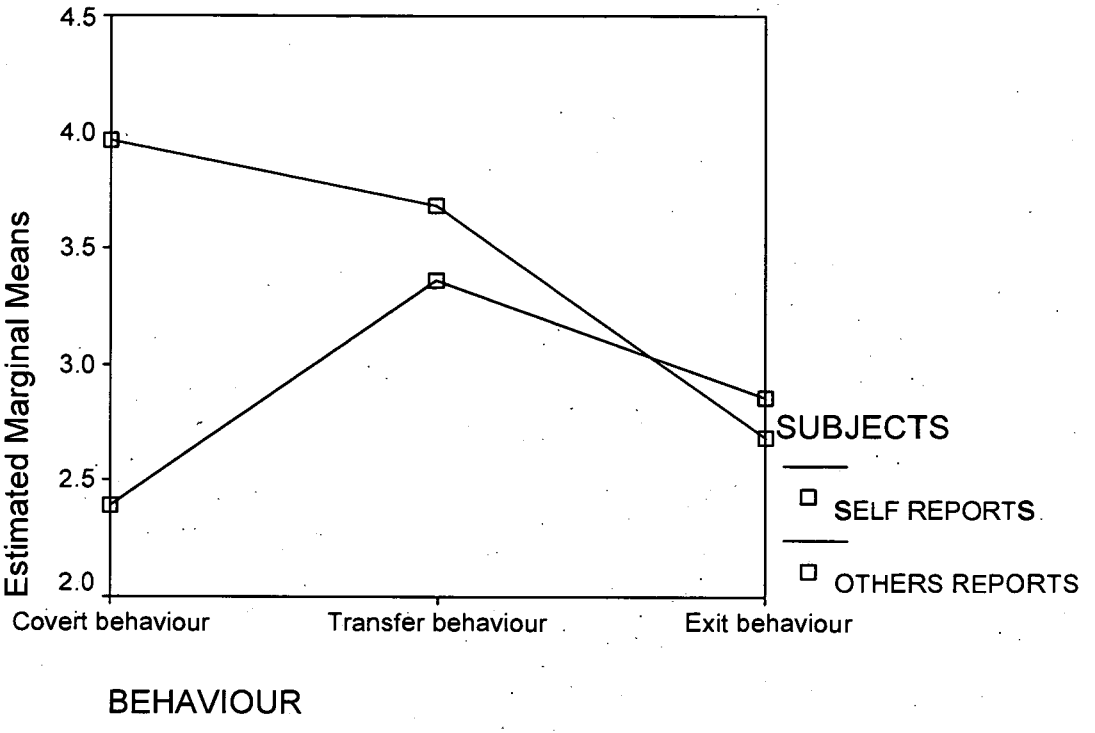
Measure: MEASURE_1

SUBJECTS	BEHAVE	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	1	2.397	.066	2.268	2.527
	2	3.357	.087	3.186	3.528
	3	2.861	.098	2.668	3.053
2	1	3.964	.062	3.842	4.086
	2	3.684	.078	3.530	3.838
	3	2.688	.090	2.511	2.865

Profile Plots

Self- Reports Versus Others With Withdrawal Behaviours

Graph 2



Demographics:

General Linear Model: Self-Reports of Withdrawal Behaviours and Demographics

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
University Degree	1.00	yes degree	118
	2.00	no degree	148
Gender	1.00	Male	92
	2.00	Female	174
Age - Young and Old	1	Young	111
	2	Old	155
Position - Management and Staff	1	Managem ent	49
	2	Staff	217

Descriptive Statistics

	University Degree	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Minimal work SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	4.00		1
				Staff	2.67	1.11	15
				Total	2.75	1.13	16
			Old	Management	3.00	1.26	11
				Staff	2.44	1.10	18
				Total	2.66	1.17	29
			Total	Management	3.08	1.24	12
				Staff	2.55	1.09	33
				Total	2.69	1.14	45
		Female	Young	Management	3.33	.58	3
				Staff	2.89	1.29	28
				Total	2.94	1.24	31
			Old	Management	3.00	1.10	16
				Staff	2.88	1.40	26
				Total	2.93	1.28	42
			Total	Management	3.05	1.03	19
				Staff	2.89	1.33	54
				Total	2.93	1.25	73
		Total	Young	Management	3.50	.58	4
				Staff	2.81	1.22	43
				Total	2.87	1.19	47
			Old	Management	3.00	1.14	27
				Staff	2.70	1.29	44
				Total	2.82	1.23	71
			Total	Management	3.06	1.09	31
				Staff	2.76	1.25	87
				Total	2.84	1.21	118

	no degree	Male	Young	Staff	2.70	1.49	10
				Total	2.70	1.49	10
			Old	Management	2.33	.87	9
				Staff	2.96	1.17	28
				Total	2.81	1.13	37
			Total	Management	2.33	.87	9
				Staff	2.89	1.25	38
				Total	2.79	1.20	47
		Female	Young	Management	3.25	1.50	4
				Staff	2.96	1.43	50
				Total	2.98	1.42	54
			Old	Management	3.20	1.10	5
				Staff	2.29	1.11	42
				Total	2.38	1.13	47
			Total	Management	3.22	1.20	9
				Staff	2.65	1.33	92
				Total	2.70	1.32	101
		Total	Young	Management	3.25	1.50	4
				Staff	2.92	1.43	60
				Total	2.94	1.42	64
			Old	Management	2.64	1.01	14
				Staff	2.56	1.18	70
				Total	2.57	1.14	84
			Total	Management	2.78	1.11	18
				Staff	2.72	1.31	130
				Total	2.73	1.28	148
	Total	Male	Young	Management	4.00	.	1
				Staff	2.68	1.25	25
				Total	2.73	1.25	26
			Old	Management	2.70	1.13	20
				Staff	2.76	1.16	46
				Total	2.74	1.14	66
			Total	Management	2.76	1.14	21
				Staff	2.73	1.18	71
				Total	2.74	1.17	92
		Female	Young	Management	3.29	1.11	7
				Staff	2.94	1.37	78
				Total	2.96	1.35	85
			Old	Management	3.05	1.07	21
				Staff	2.51	1.25	68
				Total	2.64	1.23	89
			Total	Management	3.11	1.07	28
				Staff	2.74	1.33	146
				Total	2.80	1.29	174
		Total	Young	Management	3.37	1.06	8
				Staff	2.87	1.34	103
				Total	2.91	1.32	111
			Old	Management	2.88	1.10	41
				Staff	2.61	1.22	114
				Total	2.68	1.19	155
			Total	Management	2.96	1.10	49
				Staff	2.74	1.28	217
				Total	2.78	1.25	266
Lateness SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.47	1.36	15
				Total	2.44	1.31	16
			Old	Management	2.00	1.34	11
				Staff	1.72	.67	18
				Total	1.83	.97	29
			Total	Management	2.00	1.28	12
				Staff	2.06	1.09	33
				Total	2.04	1.13	45
		Female	Young	Management	2.00	1.00	3
				Staff	2.43	1.29	28
				Total	2.39	1.26	31
			Old	Management	2.31	1.40	16

				Staff	2.54	1.68	26
				Total	2.45	1.56	42
			Total	Management	2.26	1.33	19
				Staff	2.48	1.48	54
				Total	2.42	1.43	73
		Total	Young	Management	2.00	.82	4
				Staff	2.44	1.30	43
				Total	2.40	1.26	47
			Old	Management	2.19	1.36	27
				Staff	2.20	1.41	44
				Total	2.20	1.38	71
			Total	Management	2.16	1.29	31
				Staff	2.32	1.35	87
				Total	2.28	1.33	118
	no degree	Male	Young	Staff	2.20	1.62	10
				Total	2.20	1.62	10
			Old	Management	2.00	1.00	9
				Staff	1.79	1.10	28
				Total	1.84	1.07	37
			Total	Management	2.00	1.00	9
				Staff	1.89	1.25	38
				Total	1.91	1.19	47
		Female	Young	Management	3.00	1.41	4
				Staff	2.26	1.32	50
				Total	2.31	1.33	54
			Old	Management	2.00	1.22	5
				Staff	1.52	.83	42
				Total	1.57	.88	47
			Total	Management	2.44	1.33	9
				Staff	1.92	1.18	92
				Total	1.97	1.20	101
		Total	Young	Management	3.00	1.41	4
				Staff	2.25	1.36	60
				Total	2.30	1.36	64
			Old	Management	2.00	1.04	14
				Staff	1.63	.95	70
				Total	1.69	.97	84
			Total	Management	2.22	1.17	18
				Staff	1.92	1.19	130
				Total	1.95	1.19	148
	Total	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.36	1.44	25
				Total	2.35	1.41	26
			Old	Management	2.00	1.17	20
				Staff	1.76	.95	46
				Total	1.83	1.02	66
			Total	Management	2.00	1.14	21
				Staff	1.97	1.17	71
				Total	1.98	1.16	92
		Female	Young	Management	2.57	1.27	7
				Staff	2.32	1.30	78
				Total	2.34	1.30	85
			Old	Management	2.24	1.34	21
				Staff	1.91	1.31	68
				Total	1.99	1.32	89
			Total	Management	2.32	1.31	28
				Staff	2.13	1.32	146
				Total	2.16	1.32	174
		Total	Young	Management	2.50	1.20	8
				Staff	2.33	1.33	103
				Total	2.34	1.32	111
			Old	Management	2.12	1.25	41
				Staff	1.85	1.18	114
				Total	1.92	1.20	155
			Total	Management	2.18	1.24	49
				Staff	2.08	1.27	217
				Total	2.10	1.26	266

Absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	1.73	.80	15
				Total	1.75	.77	16
			Old	Management	2.27	1.19	11
				Staff	1.67	1.03	18
				Total	1.90	1.11	29
			Total	Management	2.25	1.14	12
				Staff	1.70	.92	33
				Total	1.84	1.00	45
		Female	Young	Management	3.00	1.00	3
				Staff	2.46	1.43	28
				Total	2.52	1.39	31
			Old	Management	2.38	1.50	16
				Staff	2.46	1.61	26
				Total	2.43	1.55	42
			Total	Management	2.47	1.43	19
				Staff	2.46	1.50	54
				Total	2.47	1.47	73
		Total	Young	Management	2.75	.96	4
				Staff	2.21	1.28	43
				Total	2.26	1.26	47
			Old	Management	2.33	1.36	27
				Staff	2.14	1.44	44
				Total	2.21	1.40	71
			Total	Management	2.39	1.31	31
				Staff	2.17	1.36	87
				Total	2.23	1.34	118
	no degree	Male	Young	Staff	3.50	1.27	10
				Total	3.50	1.27	10
			Old	Management	1.67	1.00	9
				Staff	2.79	1.57	28
				Total	2.51	1.52	37
			Total	Management	1.67	1.00	9
				Staff	2.97	1.52	38
				Total	2.72	1.51	47
		Female	Young	Management	2.00	1.41	4
				Staff	2.84	1.49	50
				Total	2.78	1.49	54
			Old	Management	1.80	1.30	5
				Staff	1.57	1.04	42
				Total	1.60	1.06	47
			Total	Management	1.89	1.27	9
				Staff	2.26	1.44	92
				Total	2.23	1.43	101
		Total	Young	Management	2.00	1.41	4
				Staff	2.95	1.47	60
				Total	2.89	1.47	64
			Old	Management	1.71	1.07	14
				Staff	2.06	1.40	70
				Total	2.00	1.35	84
			Total	Management	1.78	1.11	18
				Staff	2.47	1.50	130
				Total	2.39	1.47	148
	Total	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.44	1.33	25
				Total	2.42	1.30	26
			Old	Management	2.00	1.12	20
				Staff	2.35	1.48	46
				Total	2.24	1.38	66
			Total	Management	2.00	1.10	21
				Staff	2.38	1.42	71
				Total	2.29	1.35	92
		Female	Young	Management	2.43	1.27	7
				Staff	2.71	1.47	78
				Total	2.68	1.45	85
			Old	Management	2.24	1.45	21

				Staff	1.91	1.35	68
				Total	1.99	1.37	89
			Total	Management	2.29	1.38	28
				Staff	2.34	1.46	146
				Total	2.33	1.45	174
		Total	Young	Management	2.38	1.19	8
				Staff	2.64	1.43	103
				Total	2.62	1.41	111
			Old	Management	2.12	1.29	41
				Staff	2.09	1.41	114
				Total	2.10	1.38	155
			Total	Management	2.16	1.26	49
				Staff	2.35	1.45	217
				Total	2.32	1.41	266
Transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.60	1.68	15
				Total	2.56	1.63	16
			Old	Management	3.27	1.27	11
				Staff	3.67	1.75	18
				Total	3.52	1.57	29
			Total	Management	3.17	1.27	12
				Staff	3.18	1.78	33
				Total	3.18	1.64	45
		Female	Young	Management	4.67	.58	3
				Staff	3.18	1.54	28
				Total	3.32	1.54	31
			Old	Management	3.75	1.29	16
				Staff	3.23	1.50	26
				Total	3.43	1.43	42
			Total	Management	3.89	1.24	19
				Staff	3.20	1.51	54
				Total	3.38	1.47	73
		Total	Young	Management	4.00	1.41	4
				Staff	2.98	1.60	43
				Total	3.06	1.59	47
			Old	Management	3.56	1.28	27
				Staff	3.41	1.60	44
				Total	3.46	1.48	71
			Total	Management	3.61	1.28	31
				Staff	3.20	1.61	87
				Total	3.31	1.53	118
	no degree	Male	Young	Staff	2.80	1.40	10
				Total	2.80	1.40	10
			Old	Management	3.11	1.17	9
				Staff	3.29	1.86	28
				Total	3.24	1.71	37
			Total	Management	3.11	1.17	9
				Staff	3.16	1.75	38
				Total	3.15	1.64	47
		Female	Young	Management	3.50	1.00	4
				Staff	3.52	1.15	50
				Total	3.52	1.13	54
			Old	Management	3.80	1.30	5
				Staff	3.48	1.13	42
				Total	3.51	1.14	47
			Total	Management	3.67	1.12	9
				Staff	3.50	1.13	92
				Total	3.51	1.13	101
		Total	Young	Management	3.50	1.00	4
				Staff	3.40	1.21	60
				Total	3.41	1.19	64
			Old	Management	3.36	1.22	14
				Staff	3.40	1.46	70
				Total	3.39	1.41	84

			Total	Management	3.39	1.14	18
				Staff	3.40	1.34	130
				Total	3.40	1.32	148
	Total	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.68	1.55	25
				Total	2.65	1.52	26
			Old	Management	3.20	1.20	20
				Staff	3.43	1.81	46
				Total	3.36	1.64	66
			Total	Management	3.14	1.20	21
				Staff	3.17	1.75	71
				Total	3.16	1.63	92
		Female	Young	Management	4.00	1.00	7
				Staff	3.40	1.30	78
				Total	3.45	1.29	85
			Old	Management	3.76	1.26	21
				Staff	3.38	1.28	68
				Total	3.47	1.28	89
			Total	Management	3.82	1.19	28
				Staff	3.39	1.29	146
				Total	3.46	1.28	174
		Total	Young	Management	3.75	1.16	8
				Staff	3.22	1.39	103
				Total	3.26	1.38	111
			Old	Management	3.49	1.25	41
				Staff	3.40	1.51	114
				Total	3.43	1.44	155
			Total	Management	3.53	1.23	49
				Staff	3.32	1.45	217
				Total	3.36	1.42	266
Exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.00	.	1
				Staff	2.80	1.66	15
				Total	2.75	1.61	16
			Old	Management	3.18	1.40	11
				Staff	3.22	1.70	18
				Total	3.21	1.57	29
			Total	Management	3.08	1.38	12
				Staff	3.03	1.67	33
				Total	3.04	1.58	45
		Female	Young	Management	4.00	1.00	3
				Staff	3.50	1.40	28
				Total	3.55	1.36	31
			Old	Management	3.63	1.50	16
				Staff	3.19	1.67	26
				Total	3.36	1.61	42
			Total	Management	3.68	1.42	19
				Staff	3.35	1.53	54
				Total	3.44	1.50	73
		Total	Young	Management	3.50	1.29	4
				Staff	3.26	1.51	43
				Total	3.28	1.48	47
			Old	Management	3.44	1.45	27
				Staff	3.20	1.66	44
				Total	3.30	1.58	71
			Total	Management	3.45	1.41	31
				Staff	3.23	1.58	87
				Total	3.29	1.54	118
	no degree	Male	Young	Staff	1.60	1.26	10
				Total	1.60	1.26	10
			Old	Management	3.00	1.58	9
				Staff	3.25	1.60	28
				Total	3.19	1.58	37
			Total	Management	3.00	1.58	9
				Staff	2.82	1.67	38
				Total	2.85	1.64	47

		Female	Young	Management	2.50	1.73	4
				Staff	2.58	1.59	50
				Total	2.57	1.59	54
			Old	Management	4.00	1.41	5
				Staff	1.90	1.23	42
				Total	2.13	1.39	47
			Total	Management	3.33	1.66	9
				Staff	2.27	1.47	92
				Total	2.37	1.51	101
		Total	Young	Management	2.50	1.73	4
				Staff	2.42	1.58	60
				Total	2.42	1.57	64
			Old	Management	3.36	1.55	14
				Staff	2.44	1.53	70
				Total	2.60	1.56	84
			Total	Management	3.17	1.58	18
				Staff	2.43	1.54	130
				Total	2.52	1.56	148
	Total	Male	Young	Management	2.00		1
				Staff	2.32	1.60	25
				Total	2.31	1.57	26
			Old	Management	3.10	1.45	20
				Staff	3.24	1.62	46
				Total	3.20	1.56	66
			Total	Management	3.05	1.43	21
				Staff	2.92	1.66	71
				Total	2.95	1.61	92
		Female	Young	Management	3.14	1.57	7
				Staff	2.91	1.58	78
				Total	2.93	1.57	85
			Old	Management	3.71	1.45	21
				Staff	2.40	1.54	68
				Total	2.71	1.61	89
			Total	Management	3.57	1.48	28
				Staff	2.67	1.58	146
				Total	2.82	1.59	174
		Total	Young	Management	3.00	1.51	8
				Staff	2.77	1.60	103
				Total	2.78	1.59	111
			Old	Management	3.41	1.47	41
				Staff	2.74	1.62	114
				Total	2.92	1.60	155
			Total	Management	3.35	1.47	49
				Staff	2.75	1.61	217
				Total	2.86	1.59	266

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices [a]

Box's M	381.457
F	1.429
df1	150
df2	1218
Sig.	.001

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+DEGREE+GENDER+AGE2+POS2+DEGREE * GENDER+DEGREE * AGE2+GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * GENDER * POS2+AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * AGE2 * POS2+GENDER * AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2 * POS2

Multivariate [b]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.762	158.072 [a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Wilks'	.238	158.072 [a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	3.200	158.072 [a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Roy's Largest	3.200	158.072 [a]	5.000	247.000	.000
DEGREE	Pillai's Trace	.026	1.343 [a]	5.000	247.000	.247
	Wilks'	.974	1.343 [a]	5.000	247.000	.247
	Hotelling's Trace	.027	1.343 [a]	5.000	247.000	.247
	Roy's Largest	.027	1.343 [a]	5.000	247.000	.247
GENDE	Pillai's Trace	.027	1.385 [a]	5.000	247.000	.230
	Wilks'	.973	1.385 [a]	5.000	247.000	.230
	Hotelling's Trace	.028	1.385 [a]	5.000	247.000	.230
	Roy's Largest	.028	1.385 [a]	5.000	247.000	.230
AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.022	1.094 [a]	5.000	247.000	.364
	Wilks'	.978	1.094 [a]	5.000	247.000	.364
	Hotelling's Trace	.022	1.094 [a]	5.000	247.000	.364
	Roy's Largest	.022	1.094 [a]	5.000	247.000	.364
POS2	Pillai's Trace	.014	.685 [a]	5.000	247.000	.635
	Wilks'	.986	.685 [a]	5.000	247.000	.635
	Hotelling's Trace	.014	.685 [a]	5.000	247.000	.635
	Roy's Largest	.014	.685 [a]	5.000	247.000	.635
DEGREE *	Pillai's Trace	.027	1.376 [a]	5.000	247.000	.234
	Wilks'	.973	1.376 [a]	5.000	247.000	.234
	Hotelling's Trace	.028	1.376 [a]	5.000	247.000	.234
	Roy's Largest	.028	1.376 [a]	5.000	247.000	.234
DEGREE *	Pillai's Trace	.020	.984 [a]	5.000	247.000	.428
	Wilks'	.980	.984 [a]	5.000	247.000	.428
	Hotelling's Trace	.020	.984 [a]	5.000	247.000	.428
	Roy's Largest	.020	.984 [a]	5.000	247.000	.428
GENDER *	Pillai's Trace	.028	1.433 [a]	5.000	247.000	.213
	Wilks'	.972	1.433 [a]	5.000	247.000	.213
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	1.433 [a]	5.000	247.000	.213
	Roy's Largest	.029	1.433 [a]	5.000	247.000	.213
DEGREE * GENDER AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.025	1.256 [a]	5.000	247.000	.284
	Wilks'	.975	1.256 [a]	5.000	247.000	.284
	Hotelling's Trace	.025	1.256 [a]	5.000	247.000	.284
	Roy's Largest	.025	1.256 [a]	5.000	247.000	.284
DEGREE *	Pillai's Trace	.050	2.593 [a]	5.000	247.000	.026
	Wilks'	.950	2.593 [a]	5.000	247.000	.026
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	2.593 [a]	5.000	247.000	.026
	Roy's Largest	.052	2.593 [a]	5.000	247.000	.026
GENDER *	Pillai's Trace	.021	1.048 [a]	5.000	247.000	.390
	Wilks'	.979	1.048 [a]	5.000	247.000	.390
	Hotelling's Trace	.021	1.048 [a]	5.000	247.000	.390
	Roy's Largest	.021	1.048 [a]	5.000	247.000	.390
DEGREE * GENDER POS2	Pillai's Trace	.031	1.595 [a]	5.000	247.000	.162
	Wilks'	.969	1.595 [a]	5.000	247.000	.162
	Hotelling's Trace	.032	1.595 [a]	5.000	247.000	.162
	Roy's Largest	.032	1.595 [a]	5.000	247.000	.162
AGE2 * POS2	Pillai's Trace	.013	.671 [a]	5.000	247.000	.646
	Wilks'	.987	.671 [a]	5.000	247.000	.646
	Hotelling's Trace	.014	.671 [a]	5.000	247.000	.646
	Roy's Largest	.014	.671 [a]	5.000	247.000	.646
DEGREE * AGE2 *	Pillai's Trace	.022	1.122 [a]	5.000	247.000	.349
	Wilks'	.978	1.122 [a]	5.000	247.000	.349
	Hotelling's Trace	.023	1.122 [a]	5.000	247.000	.349
	Roy's Largest	.023	1.122 [a]	5.000	247.000	.349
GENDER * AGE2 *	Pillai's Trace	.005	.265 [a]	5.000	247.000	.932
	Wilks'	.995	.265 [a]	5.000	247.000	.932
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.265 [a]	5.000	247.000	.932
	Roy's Largest	.005	.265 [a]	5.000	247.000	.932
DEGREE * GENDER AGE2 * POS2	Pillai's Trace	.000	. [a]	.000	.000	.
	Wilks'	1.000	. [a]	.000	249.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	. [a]	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest	.000	.000 [a]	5.000	246.000	1.000

a. Exact

b. Design: Intercept+DEGREE+GENDER+AGE2+POS2+DEGREE * GENDER+DEGREE * AGE2+DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * POS2+AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * AGE2 * POS2+GENDER * AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * GENDER * POS2

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
minimal work SELF	1.394	14	251	.156
lateness SELF	4.406	14	251	.000
absenteeism SELF	3.923	14	251	.000
transfers within organisation SELF	4.142	14	251	.000
exit organisation SELF	2.077	14	251	.014

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+DEGREE+GENDER+AGE2+POS2+DEGREE * GENDER+DEGREE * AGE2+GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * GENDER * POS2+AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * AGE2 * POS2+GENDER * AGE2 * POS2+DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2 * POS2

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	minimal work SELF	23.031	14	1.645	1.056	.398
	lateness SELF	34.948	14	2.496	1.613	.076
	absenteeism SELF	78.163	14	5.583	3.105	.000
	transfers within organisation SELF	27.941	14	1.996	.996	.458
	exit organisation SELF	101.468	14	7.248	3.178	.000
Intercept	minimal work SELF	549.267	1	549.267	352.705	.000
	lateness SELF	300.975	1	300.975	194.446	.000
	absenteeism SELF	326.205	1	326.205	181.421	.000
	transfers within organisation SELF	677.463	1	677.463	337.970	.000
	exit organisation SELF	517.077	1	517.077	226.747	.000
DEGREE	minimal work SELF	.548	1	.548	.352	.554
	lateness SELF	5.132E-02	1	5.132E-02	.033	.856
	absenteeism SELF	2.036E-03	1	2.036E-03	.001	.973
	transfers within organisation SELF	.809	1	.809	.404	.526
	exit organisation SELF	15.476	1	15.476	6.787	.010
GENDER	minimal work SELF	.168	1	.168	.108	.743
	lateness SELF	.243	1	.243	.157	.692
	absenteeism SELF	.407	1	.407	.227	.634
	transfers within organisation SELF	10.080	1	10.080	5.028	.026
	exit organisation SELF	7.844	1	7.844	3.440	.065
AGE2	minimal work SELF	1.065	1	1.065	.684	.409
	lateness SELF	1.975	1	1.975	1.276	.260
	absenteeism SELF	1.418	1	1.418	.789	.375
	transfers within organisation SELF	2.488	1	2.488	1.241	.266
	exit organisation SELF	7.716	1	7.716	3.383	.067
POS2	minimal work SELF	2.398	1	2.398	1.540	.216
	lateness SELF	.134	1	.134	.087	.769
	absenteeism SELF	.666	1	.666	.371	.543
	transfers within organisation SELF	5.350E-02	1	5.350E-02	.027	.870
	exit organisation	.129	1	.129	.057	.812

	SELF					
DEGREE * GENDER	minimal work SELF	.160	1	.160	.103	.749
	lateness SELF	.783	1	.783	.506	.478
	absenteeism SELF	7.708	1	7.708	4.287	.039
	transfers within organisation SELF	.612	1	.612	.305	.581
	exit organisation SELF	4.425E-02	1	4.425E-02	.019	.889
DEGREE * AGE2	minimal work SELF	.168	1	.168	.108	.743
	lateness SELF	1.743	1	1.743	1.126	.290
	absenteeism SELF	.646	1	.646	.359	.549
	transfers within organisation SELF	.305	1	.305	.152	.697
	exit organisation SELF	7.519	1	7.519	3.297	.071
GENDER * AGE2	minimal work SELF	1.585E-02	1	1.585E-02	.010	.920
	lateness SELF	.102	1	.102	.066	.798
	absenteeism SELF	1.176	1	1.176	.654	.420
	transfers within organisation SELF	6.068	1	6.068	3.027	.083
	exit organisation SELF	10.515	1	10.515	4.611	.033
DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2	minimal work SELF	3.534	1	3.534	2.269	.133
	lateness SELF	3.680	1	3.680	2.378	.124
	absenteeism SELF	1.017	1	1.017	.565	.453
	transfers within organisation SELF	.626	1	.626	.312	.577
	exit organisation SELF	6.770	1	6.770	2.969	.086
DEGREE * POS2	minimal work SELF	.867	1	.867	.557	.456
	lateness SELF	2.092	1	2.092	1.352	.246
	absenteeism SELF	8.547	1	8.547	4.754	.030
	transfers within organisation SELF	1.897	1	1.897	.946	.332
	exit organisation SELF	1.714E-03	1	1.714E-03	.001	.978
GENDER * POS2	minimal work SELF	.100	1	.100	.064	.800
	lateness SELF	1.240E-03	1	1.240E-03	.001	.977
	absenteeism SELF	.864	1	.864	.480	.489
	transfers within organisation SELF	4.957	1	4.957	2.473	.117
	exit organisation SELF	8.066	1	8.066	3.537	.061
DEGREE * GENDER * POS2	minimal work SELF	6.378	1	6.378	4.095	.044
	lateness SELF	.948	1	.948	.613	.434
	absenteeism SELF	6.735	1	6.735	3.746	.054
	transfers within organisation SELF	.278	1	.278	.139	.710
	exit organisation SELF	5.671	1	5.671	2.487	.116
AGE2 * POS2	minimal work SELF	5.475E-02	1	5.475E-02	.035	.851
	lateness SELF	.186	1	.186	.120	.729
	absenteeism SELF	.659	1	.659	.367	.545
	transfers within organisation SELF	2.347E-03	1	2.347E-03	.001	.973
	exit organisation SELF	4.613	1	4.613	2.023	.156
DEGREE *	minimal work SELF	.935	1	.935	.600	.439

AGE2 * POS2						
	lateness SELF	.226	1	.226	.146	.703
	absenteeism SELF	2.966	1	2.966	1.650	.200
	transfers within organisation SELF	1.788	1	1.788	.892	.346
	exit organisation SELF	5.218	1	5.218	2.288	.132
GENDER * AGE2 * POS2	minimal work SELF	.122	1	.122	.078	.780
	lateness SELF	.174	1	.174	.113	.737
	absenteeism SELF	.549	1	.549	.306	.581
	transfers within organisation SELF	.820	1	.820	.409	.523
	exit organisation SELF	.406	1	.406	.178	.673
DEGREE * GENDER * AGE2 * POS2	minimal work SELF	.000	0	.	.	.
	lateness SELF	.000	0	.	.	.
	absenteeism SELF	.000	0	.	.	.
	transfers within organisation SELF	.000	0	.	.	.
	exit organisation SELF	.000	0	.	.	.
Error	minimal work SELF	390.883	251	1.557		
	lateness SELF	388.511	251	1.548		
	absenteeism SELF	451.311	251	1.798		
	transfers within organisation SELF	503.130	251	2.005		
	exit organisation SELF	572.385	251	2.280		
Total	minimal work SELF	2467.000	266			
	lateness SELF	1594.000	266			
	absenteeism SELF	1956.000	266			
	transfers within organisation SELF	3529.000	266			
	exit organisation SELF	2851.000	266			
Corrected Total	minimal work SELF	413.914	265			
	lateness SELF	423.459	265			
	absenteeism SELF	529.474	265			
	transfers within organisation SELF	531.071	265			
	exit organisation SELF	673.853	265			

a R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .003)
b R Squared = .083 (Adjusted R Squared = .031)
c R Squared = .148 (Adjusted R Squared = .100)
d R Squared = .053 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)
e R Squared = .151 (Adjusted R Squared = .103)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. University Degree

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	3.028	.202	2.629	3.426
	no degree	2.813[a]	.153	2.511	3.115
lateness SELF	yes degree	2.184	.202	1.786	2.581
	no degree	2.110[a]	.153	1.809	2.411
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	2.247	.217	1.818	2.675
	no degree	2.309[a]	.165	1.984	2.634
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	3.296	.230	2.843	3.748
	no degree	3.356[a]	.174	3.013	3.699
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	3.190	.245	2.708	3.672
	no degree	2.691[a]	.186	2.325	3.056

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

2. Gender

Dependent Variable	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Male	2.873[a]	.215	2.448	3.297
	Female	2.976[a]	.153	2.674	3.277
lateness SELF	Male	2.025[a]	.215	1.602	2.448
	Female	2.258[a]	.153	1.957	2.559
absenteeism SELF	Male	2.232[a]	.231	1.776	2.688
	Female	2.314[a]	.165	1.990	2.638
transfers within organisation SELF	Male	2.962[a]	.244	2.481	3.444
	Female	3.640[a]	.174	3.298	3.982
exit organisation SELF	Male	2.722[a]	.261	2.209	3.235
	Female	3.163[a]	.185	2.798	3.528

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

3. Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Young	3.115[a]	.240	2.643	3.586
	Old	2.764[a]	.123	2.523	3.006
lateness SELF	Young	2.336[a]	.239	1.866	2.807
	Old	1.985[a]	.122	1.745	2.226
absenteeism SELF	Young	2.505[a]	.257	1.998	3.012
	Old	2.075[a]	.132	1.815	2.334
transfers within organisation SELF	Young	3.181[a]	.272	2.645	3.716
	Old	3.449[a]	.139	3.175	3.723
exit organisation SELF	Young	2.711[a]	.290	2.141	3.282
	Old	3.172[a]	.148	2.880	3.464

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

4. Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Management	3.160[a]	.255	2.657	3.662
	Staff	2.725[a]	.096	2.536	2.913
lateness SELF	Management	2.188[a]	.254	1.687	2.688
	Staff	2.116[a]	.095	1.928	2.303
absenteeism SELF	Management	2.159[a]	.274	1.619	2.699
	Staff	2.378[a]	.103	2.175	2.580
transfers within organisation SELF	Management	3.443[a]	.289	2.873	4.013
	Staff	3.220[a]	.109	3.006	3.433
exit organisation SELF	Management	3.187[a]	.309	2.579	3.795
	Staff	2.756[a]	.116	2.528	2.984

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

5. University Degree * Gender

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Male	3.028	.344	2.351	3.705
		Female	3.028	.214	2.606	3.449
	no degree	Male	2.666[a]	.207	2.259	3.073
		Female	2.924[a]	.219	2.492	3.356
lateness SELF	yes degree	Male	2.047	.343	1.373	2.722
		Female	2.320	.213	1.900	2.740
	no degree	Male	1.995[a]	.206	1.589	2.401
		Female	2.196[a]	.219	1.765	2.626
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Male	1.918	.369	1.191	2.645
		Female	2.575	.230	2.123	3.028
	no degree	Male	2.651[a]	.222	2.213	3.088
		Female	2.053[a]	.236	1.589	2.517
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	2.885	.390	2.117	3.653
		Female	3.707	.243	3.229	4.184
	no degree	Male	3.066[a]	.234	2.604	3.527
		Female	3.574[a]	.249	3.084	4.064
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	2.801	.416	1.982	3.620
		Female	3.579	.259	3.070	4.089
	no degree	Male	2.617[a]	.250	2.124	3.109
		Female	2.746[a]	.265	2.224	3.269

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

6. University Degree * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Young	3.223	.374	2.487	3.959
		Old	2.832	.155	2.527	3.138
	no degree	Young	2.970[a]	.253	2.472	3.468
		Old	2.696[a]	.190	2.322	3.070
lateness SELF	yes degree	Young	2.224	.373	1.490	2.958
		Old	2.143	.155	1.839	2.448
	no degree	Young	2.487[a]	.252	1.990	2.983
		Old	1.827[a]	.189	1.454	2.200
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Young	2.299	.402	1.508	3.090
		Old	2.194	.167	1.866	2.522
	no degree	Young	2.780[a]	.272	2.245	3.315
		Old	1.956[a]	.204	1.554	2.358
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Young	3.111	.424	2.276	3.947
		Old	3.480	.176	3.133	3.827
	no degree	Young	3.273[a]	.287	2.708	3.839
		Old	3.418[a]	.215	2.994	3.843
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Young	3.075	.452	2.184	3.966
		Old	3.305	.188	2.935	3.675
	no degree	Young	2.227[a]	.306	1.624	2.830
		Old	3.039[a]	.230	2.586	3.491

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

7. Gender * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Male	Young	3.122[a]	.449	2.237	4.007
		Old	2.686[a]	.169	2.353	3.018
	Female	Young	3.109[a]	.249	2.618	3.600
		Old	2.843[a]	.178	2.492	3.193
lateness SELF	Male	Young	2.222[a]	.448	1.340	3.104
		Old	1.877[a]	.168	1.545	2.209
	Female	Young	2.422[a]	.249	1.932	2.912
		Old	2.094[a]	.177	1.745	2.443
absenteeism SELF	Male	Young	2.411[a]	.483	1.460	3.362
		Old	2.098[a]	.182	1.740	2.455
	Female	Young	2.576[a]	.268	2.048	3.104
		Old	2.052[a]	.191	1.676	2.428
transfers within organisation SELF	Male	Young	2.467[a]	.510	1.463	3.471
		Old	3.334[a]	.192	2.957	3.712
	Female	Young	3.716[a]	.283	3.159	4.274
		Old	3.564[a]	.202	3.167	3.962
exit organisation SELF	Male	Young	2.133[a]	.544	1.063	3.204
		Old	3.164[a]	.204	2.761	3.566
	Female	Young	3.145[a]	.302	2.551	3.739
		Old	3.181[a]	.215	2.757	3.604

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

8. University Degree * Gender * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	3.333	.644	2.064	4.602
			Old	2.722	.239	2.252	3.193
		Female	Young	3.113	.379	2.367	3.860
			Old	2.942	.198	2.552	3.333
	no degree	Male	Young	2.700[a]	.395	1.923	3.477
			Old	2.649[a]	.239	2.178	3.120
		Female	Young	3.105[a]	.324	2.466	3.744
			Old	2.743[a]	.295	2.162	3.324
lateness SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	2.233	.642	.968	3.499
			Old	1.861	.238	1.392	2.330
		Female	Young	2.214	.378	1.470	2.959
			Old	2.425	.198	2.036	2.815
	no degree	Male	Young	2.200[a]	.393	1.425	2.975
			Old	1.893[a]	.238	1.423	2.362
		Female	Young	2.630[a]	.323	1.993	3.267
			Old	1.762[a]	.294	1.182	2.341
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	1.867	.692	.503	3.230
			Old	1.970	.257	1.464	2.475
		Female	Young	2.732	.407	1.930	3.534
			Old	2.418	.213	1.999	2.838
	no degree	Male	Young	3.500[a]	.424	2.665	4.335
			Old	2.226[a]	.257	1.720	2.732
		Female	Young	2.420[a]	.348	1.734	3.106
			Old	1.686[a]	.317	1.061	2.310
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	2.300	.731	.860	3.740
			Old	3.470	.271	2.936	4.003
		Female	Young	3.923	.430	3.076	4.770
			Old	3.490	.225	3.047	3.933
	no degree	Male	Young	2.800[a]	.448	1.918	3.682
			Old	3.198[a]	.271	2.664	3.733
		Female	Young	3.510[a]	.368	2.786	4.234
			Old	3.638[a]	.335	2.979	4.298
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	2.400	.780	.864	3.936
			Old	3.202	.289	2.633	3.771
		Female	Young	3.750	.459	2.847	4.653
			Old	3.409	.240	2.936	3.881
	no degree	Male	Young	1.600[a]	.478	.660	2.540
			Old	3.125[a]	.289	2.555	3.695
		Female	Young	2.540[a]	.392	1.767	3.313
			Old	2.952[a]	.357	2.249	3.656

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

9. University Degree * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Management	3.333	.380	2.584	4.083
		Staff	2.722	.138	2.450	2.994
	no degree	Management	2.928[a]	.312	2.314	3.541
		Staff	2.728[a]	.132	2.467	2.988
lateness SELF	yes degree	Management	2.078	.379	1.331	2.825
		Staff	2.289	.138	2.018	2.560
	no degree	Management	2.333[a]	.311	1.722	2.945
		Staff	1.942[a]	.132	1.683	2.202
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Management	2.412	.409	1.607	3.217
		Staff	2.081	.149	1.789	2.374
	no degree	Management	1.822[a]	.335	1.163	2.482
		Staff	2.674[a]	.142	2.395	2.954
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Management	3.422	.432	2.572	4.272
		Staff	3.169	.157	2.860	3.478
	no degree	Management	3.470[a]	.354	2.774	4.167
		Staff	3.270[a]	.150	2.975	3.566
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Management	3.202	.460	2.295	4.108
		Staff	3.179	.167	2.849	3.508
	no degree	Management	3.167[a]	.377	2.424	3.909
		Staff	2.334[a]	.160	2.019	2.649

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

10. Gender * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Gender	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Male	Management	3.111[a]	.456	2.213	4.009
		Staff	2.694[a]	.158	2.382	3.006
	Female	Management	3.196[a]	.287	2.631	3.761
		Staff	2.756[a]	.107	2.545	2.967
lateness SELF	Male	Management	2.000[a]	.455	1.105	2.895
		Staff	2.044[a]	.158	1.733	2.355
	Female	Management	2.328[a]	.286	1.765	2.891
		Staff	2.188[a]	.107	1.977	2.398
absenteeism SELF	Male	Management	1.980[a]	.490	1.015	2.945
		Staff	2.421[a]	.170	2.086	2.757
	Female	Management	2.294[a]	.308	1.687	2.901
		Staff	2.334[a]	.115	2.108	2.561
transfers within organisation SELF	Male	Management	2.795[a]	.517	1.776	3.814
		Staff	3.088[a]	.180	2.734	3.442
	Female	Management	3.929[a]	.326	3.288	4.570
		Staff	3.351[a]	.122	3.112	3.591
exit organisation SELF	Male	Management	2.727[a]	.552	1.640	3.814
		Staff	2.718[a]	.192	2.340	3.096
	Female	Management	3.531[a]	.347	2.847	4.215
		Staff	2.794[a]	.130	2.539	3.050

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

11. University Degree * Gender * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Gender	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Male	Management	3.500	.652	2.216	4.784
			Staff	2.556	.218	2.126	2.985
		Female	Management	3.167	.393	2.394	3.940
			Staff	2.889	.170	2.554	3.223
	no degree	Male	Management	2.333[a]	.416	1.514	3.153
			Staff	2.832[a]	.230	2.379	3.285
		Female	Management	3.225[a]	.419	2.401	4.049
			Staff	2.623[a]	.131	2.366	2.880
lateness SELF	yes degree	Male	Management	2.000	.650	.720	3.280
			Staff	2.094	.217	1.666	2.523
		Female	Management	2.156	.391	1.385	2.927
			Staff	2.484	.169	2.150	2.817
	no degree	Male	Management	2.000[a]	.415	1.183	2.817
			Staff	1.993[a]	.229	1.542	2.444
		Female	Management	2.500[a]	.417	1.678	3.322
			Staff	1.892[a]	.130	1.635	2.148
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Male	Management	2.136	.700	.757	3.516
			Staff	1.700	.234	1.238	2.162
		Female	Management	2.688	.422	1.857	3.518
			Staff	2.463	.183	2.103	2.823
	no degree	Male	Management	1.667[a]	.447	.786	2.547
			Staff	3.143[a]	.247	2.656	3.629
		Female	Management	1.900[a]	.450	1.014	2.786
			Staff	2.206[a]	.140	1.929	2.482
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Management	2.636	.739	1.180	4.093
			Staff	3.133	.247	2.646	3.621
		Female	Management	4.208	.445	3.331	5.085
			Staff	3.205	.193	2.825	3.584
	no degree	Male	Management	3.111[a]	.472	2.182	4.041
			Staff	3.043[a]	.261	2.529	3.556
		Female	Management	3.650[a]	.475	2.715	4.585
			Staff	3.498[a]	.148	3.206	3.790
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Management	2.591	.789	1.038	4.144
			Staff	3.011	.264	2.491	3.531
		Female	Management	3.813	.475	2.877	4.748
			Staff	3.346	.206	2.941	3.751
	no degree	Male	Management	3.000[a]	.503	2.009	3.991
			Staff	2.425[a]	.278	1.877	2.973
		Female	Management	3.250[a]	.507	2.252	4.248
			Staff	2.242[a]	.158	1.931	2.554

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

12. Age - Young and Old * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Age - Young and Old	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Young	Management	3.528[a]	.523	2.497	4.559
		Staff	2.805[a]	.147	2.515	3.095
	Old	Management	2.883[a]	.213	2.465	3.302
		Staff	2.645[a]	.122	2.404	2.886
lateness SELF	Young	Management	2.333[a]	.522	1.306	3.361
		Staff	2.339[a]	.147	2.050	2.628
	Old	Management	2.078[a]	.212	1.661	2.496
		Staff	1.893[a]	.122	1.653	2.133
absenteeism SELF	Young	Management	2.333[a]	.562	1.226	3.441
		Staff	2.634[a]	.158	2.323	2.946
	Old	Management	2.029[a]	.228	1.579	2.479
		Staff	2.121[a]	.131	1.863	2.380
transfers within organisation SELF	Young	Management	3.389[a]	.594	2.219	4.558
		Staff	3.025[a]	.167	2.696	3.353
	Old	Management	3.483[a]	.241	3.008	3.959
		Staff	3.415[a]	.139	3.142	3.688
exit organisation SELF	Young	Management	2.833[a]	.633	1.586	4.081
		Staff	2.620[a]	.178	2.269	2.971
	Old	Management	3.452[a]	.257	2.945	3.958
		Staff	2.892[a]	.148	2.601	3.184

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

13. University Degree * Age - Young and Old * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Age - Young and Old	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Young	Management	3.667	.720	2.248	5.086
			Staff	2.780	.200	2.387	3.173
		Old	Management	3.000	.244	2.519	3.481
			Staff	2.665	.191	2.288	3.041
	no degree	Young	Management	3.250[a]	.624	2.021	4.479
			Staff	2.830[a]	.216	2.404	3.256
		Old	Management	2.767[a]	.348	2.081	3.452
			Staff	2.625[a]	.152	2.325	2.925
lateness SELF	yes degree	Young	Management	2.000	.718	.585	3.415
			Staff	2.448	.199	2.056	2.840
		Old	Management	2.156	.244	1.676	2.636
			Staff	2.130	.191	1.755	2.506
	no degree	Young	Management	3.000[a]	.622	1.775	4.225
			Staff	2.230[a]	.215	1.806	2.654
		Old	Management	2.000[a]	.347	1.317	2.683
			Staff	1.655[a]	.152	1.356	1.954
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Young	Management	2.500	.774	.975	4.025
			Staff	2.099	.215	1.676	2.521
		Old	Management	2.324	.263	1.807	2.841
			Staff	2.064	.206	1.659	2.469
	no degree	Young	Management	2.000[a]	.670	.680	3.320
			Staff	3.170[a]	.232	2.713	3.627
		Old	Management	1.733[a]	.374	.997	2.470
			Staff	2.179[a]	.164	1.856	2.501
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Young	Management	3.333	.817	1.723	4.943
			Staff	2.889	.227	2.443	3.335
		Old	Management	3.511	.277	2.965	4.057
			Staff	3.449	.217	3.021	3.876
	no degree	Young	Management	3.500[a]	.708	2.106	4.894
			Staff	3.160[a]	.245	2.677	3.643
		Old	Management	3.456[a]	.395	2.678	4.233
			Staff	3.381[a]	.173	3.041	3.721
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Young	Management	3.000	.872	1.283	4.717
			Staff	3.150	.242	2.674	3.626
		Old	Management	3.403	.296	2.821	3.986
			Staff	3.207	.232	2.751	3.663
	no degree	Young	Management	2.500[a]	.755	1.013	3.987
			Staff	2.090[a]	.262	1.575	2.605
		Old	Management	3.500[a]	.421	2.671	4.329
			Staff	2.577[a]	.184	2.215	2.940

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

14. Gender * Age - Young and Old * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	Male	Young	Management	4.000[a]	1.248	1.542	6.458
			Staff	2.683[a]	.255	2.182	3.185
		Old	Management	2.667[a]	.280	2.114	3.219
			Staff	2.704[a]	.189	2.333	3.076
	Female	Young	Management	3.292[a]	.477	2.353	4.230
			Staff	2.926[a]	.147	2.636	3.216
		Old	Management	3.100[a]	.320	2.470	3.730
			Staff	2.585[a]	.156	2.279	2.892
lateness SELF	Male	Young	Management	2.000[a]	1.244	-.450	4.450
			Staff	2.333[a]	.254	1.833	2.833
		Old	Management	2.000[a]	.280	1.449	2.551
			Staff	1.754[a]	.188	1.384	2.124
	Female	Young	Management	2.500[a]	.475	1.564	3.436
			Staff	2.344[a]	.147	2.055	2.633
		Old	Management	2.156[a]	.319	1.529	2.784
			Staff	2.031[a]	.155	1.725	2.337
absenteeism SELF	Male	Young	Management	2.000[a]	1.341	-.641	4.641
			Staff	2.617[a]	.274	2.078	3.156
		Old	Management	1.970[a]	.301	1.376	2.563
			Staff	2.226[a]	.203	1.827	2.625
	Female	Young	Management	2.500[a]	.512	1.491	3.509
			Staff	2.652[a]	.158	2.340	2.964
		Old	Management	2.088[a]	.344	1.411	2.764
			Staff	2.016[a]	.167	1.687	2.346
transfers within organisation SELF	Male	Young	Management	2.000[a]	1.416	-.788	4.788
			Staff	2.700[a]	.289	2.131	3.269
		Old	Management	3.192[a]	.318	2.565	3.819
			Staff	3.476[a]	.214	3.055	3.897
	Female	Young	Management	4.083[a]	.541	3.019	5.148
			Staff	3.349[a]	.167	3.020	3.678
		Old	Management	3.775[a]	.363	3.061	4.489
			Staff	3.353[a]	.177	3.006	3.701
exit organisation SELF	Male	Young	Management	2.000[a]	1.510	-.974	4.974
			Staff	2.200[a]	.308	1.593	2.807
		Old	Management	3.091[a]	.339	2.423	3.759
			Staff	3.236[a]	.228	2.787	3.685
	Female	Young	Management	3.250[a]	.577	2.114	4.386
			Staff	3.040[a]	.178	2.689	3.391
		Old	Management	3.813[a]	.387	3.051	4.574
			Staff	2.549[a]	.188	2.177	2.920

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

15. University Degree * Gender * Age - Young and Old * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	4.000	1.248	1.542	6.458
				Staff	2.667	.322	2.032	3.301
			Old	Management	3.000	.376	2.259	3.741
				Staff	2.444	.294	1.865	3.024
		Female	Young	Management	3.333	.720	1.914	4.752
				Staff	2.893	.236	2.428	3.357
			Old	Management	3.000	.312	2.386	3.614
				Staff	2.885	.245	2.403	3.367
	no degree	Male	Young	Management	.[a]	.	.	.
				Staff	2.700[b]	.395	1.923	3.477
			Old	Management	2.333[b]	.416	1.514	3.153
				Staff	2.964[b]	.236	2.500	3.429
		Female	Young	Management	3.250[b]	.624	2.021	4.479
				Staff	2.960[b]	.176	2.612	3.308
			Old	Management	3.200[b]	.558	2.101	4.299
				Staff	2.286[b]	.193	1.906	2.665
lateness SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.000	1.244	-.450	4.450
				Staff	2.467	.321	1.834	3.099
			Old	Management	2.000	.375	1.261	2.739
				Staff	1.722	.293	1.145	2.300
		Female	Young	Management	2.000	.718	.585	3.415
				Staff	2.429	.235	1.966	2.892
			Old	Management	2.313	.311	1.700	2.925
				Staff	2.538	.244	2.058	3.019
	no degree	Male	Young	Management	.[a]	.	.	.
				Staff	2.200[b]	.393	1.425	2.975
			Old	Management	2.000[b]	.415	1.183	2.817
				Staff	1.786[b]	.235	1.323	2.249
		Female	Young	Management	3.000[b]	.622	1.775	4.225
				Staff	2.260[b]	.176	1.913	2.607
			Old	Management	2.000[b]	.556	.904	3.096
				Staff	1.524[b]	.192	1.146	1.902
absenteeism SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.000	1.341	-.641	4.641
				Staff	1.733	.346	1.051	2.415
			Old	Management	2.273	.404	1.476	3.069
				Staff	1.667	.316	1.044	2.289
		Female	Young	Management	3.000	.774	1.475	4.525
				Staff	2.464	.253	1.965	2.963
			Old	Management	2.375	.335	1.715	3.035
				Staff	2.462	.263	1.944	2.979
	no degree	Male	Young	Management	.[a]	.	.	.
				Staff	3.500[b]	.424	2.665	4.335
			Old	Management	1.667[b]	.447	.786	2.547
				Staff	2.786[b]	.253	2.287	3.285
		Female	Young	Management	2.000[b]	.670	.680	3.320
				Staff	2.840[b]	.190	2.467	3.213
			Old	Management	1.800[b]	.600	.619	2.981
				Staff	1.571[b]	.207	1.164	1.979
transfers within organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.000	1.416	-.788	4.788
				Staff	2.600	.366	1.880	3.320
			Old	Management	3.273	.427	2.432	4.113
				Staff	3.667	.334	3.009	4.324
		Female	Young	Management	4.667	.817	3.057	6.277
				Staff	3.179	.268	2.652	3.706
			Old	Management	3.750	.354	3.053	4.447
				Staff	3.231	.278	2.684	3.778
	no degree	Male	Young	Management	.[a]	.	.	.
				Staff	2.800[b]	.448	1.918	3.682
			Old	Management	3.111[b]	.472	2.182	4.041
				Staff	3.286[b]	.268	2.759	3.813
		Female	Young	Management	3.500[b]	.708	2.106	4.894
				Staff	3.520[b]	.200	3.126	3.914
			Old	Management	3.800[b]	.633	2.553	5.047
				Staff	3.476[b]	.218	3.046	3.906
exit organisation SELF	yes degree	Male	Young	Management	2.000	1.510	-.974	4.974
				Staff	2.800	.390	2.032	3.568
			Old	Management	3.182	.455	2.285	4.079
				Staff	3.222	.356	2.521	3.923
		Female	Young	Management	4.000	.872	2.283	5.717
				Staff	3.500	.285	2.938	4.062
			Old	Management	3.625	.378	2.881	4.369
				Staff	3.192	.296	2.609	3.776
	no degree	Male	Young	Management	.[a]	.	.	.
				Staff	1.600[b]	.478	.660	2.540
			Old	Management	3.000[b]	.503	2.009	3.991
				Staff	3.250[b]	.285	2.688	3.812
		Female	Young	Management	2.500[b]	.755	1.013	3.987
				Staff	2.580[b]	.214	2.159	3.001
			Old	Management	4.000[b]	.675	2.670	5.330
				Staff	1.905[b]	.233	1.446	2.364

a. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

General Linear Model: Reports for Others with Withdrawal Behaviours and Demographics

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
Gender	1.00	Male	92
	2.00	Female	174
University Degree	1.00	yes degree	118
	2.00	no degree	148
Position - Management and Staff	1	Management	49
	2	Staff	217
Age - Young and Old	1	Young	111
	2	Old	155

Descriptive Statistics

	Gender	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Minimal work OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	4.00	.	1
				Old	3.45	1.37	11
				Total	3.50	1.31	12
			Staff	Young	4.20	.56	15
				Old	3.83	.86	18
				Total	4.00	.75	33
			Total	Young	4.19	.54	16
				Old	3.69	1.07	29
				Total	3.87	.94	45
		no degree	Management	Old	3.22	.97	9
				Total	3.22	.97	9
			Staff	Young	3.80	1.14	10
				Old	3.96	.84	28
				Total	3.92	.91	38
			Total	Young	3.80	1.14	10
				Old	3.78	.92	37
				Total	3.79	.95	47
		Total	Management	Young	4.00	.	1
				Old	3.35	1.18	20
				Total	3.38	1.16	21
			Staff	Young	4.04	.84	25
				Old	3.91	.84	46
				Total	3.96	.84	71
			Total	Young	4.04	.82	26
				Old	3.74	.98	66
				Total	3.83	.94	92
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	4.67	.58	3
				Old	3.56	1.50	16
				Total	3.74	1.45	19
			Staff	Young	4.32	1.09	28
				Old	3.77	1.14	26

				Total	4.06	1.14	54
			Total	Young	4.35	1.05	31
				Old	3.69	1.28	42
				Total	3.97	1.22	73
		no degree	Management	Young	3.25	1.50	4
				Old	2.80	1.79	5
				Total	3.00	1.58	9
			Staff	Young	4.22	1.07	50
				Old	4.55	.71	42
				Total	4.37	.93	92
			Total	Young	4.15	1.12	54
				Old	4.36	1.01	47
				Total	4.25	1.07	101
		Total	Management	Young	3.86	1.35	7
				Old	3.38	1.56	21
				Total	3.50	1.50	28
			Staff	Young	4.26	1.07	78
				Old	4.25	.97	68
				Total	4.25	1.02	146
			Total	Young	4.22	1.10	85
				Old	4.04	1.19	89
				Total	4.13	1.14	174
	Total	yes degree	Management	Young	4.50	.58	4
				Old	3.52	1.42	27
				Total	3.65	1.38	31
			Staff	Young	4.28	.93	43
				Old	3.80	1.02	44
				Total	4.03	1.01	87
			Total	Young	4.30	.91	47
				Old	3.69	1.19	71
				Total	3.93	1.12	118
		no degree	Management	Young	3.25	1.50	4
				Old	3.07	1.27	14
				Total	3.11	1.28	18
			Staff	Young	4.15	1.09	60
				Old	4.31	.81	70
				Total	4.24	.95	130
			Total	Young	4.09	1.12	64
				Old	4.11	1.01	84
				Total	4.10	1.05	148
		Total	Management	Young	3.88	1.25	8
				Old	3.37	1.37	41
				Total	3.45	1.35	49
			Staff	Young	4.20	1.02	103
				Old	4.11	.93	114
				Total	4.16	.97	217
			Total	Young	4.18	1.04	111
				Old	3.92	1.11	155
				Total	4.03	1.09	266
Lateness OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	3.00	.	1
				Old	3.00	1.41	11
				Total	3.00	1.35	12
			Staff	Young	4.00	.76	15
				Old	3.44	.92	18
				Total	3.70	.88	33
			Total	Young	3.94	.77	16
				Old	3.28	1.13	29
				Total	3.51	1.06	45
		no degree	Management	Old	3.78	.83	9
				Total	3.78	.83	9
			Staff	Young	3.40	1.65	10
				Old	3.64	1.22	28
				Total	3.58	1.33	38
			Total	Young	3.40	1.65	10
				Old	3.68	1.13	37

				Total	3.62	1.24	47
		Total	Management	Young	3.00	.	1
				Old	3.35	1.23	20
				Total	3.33	1.20	21
			Staff	Young	3.76	1.20	25
				Old	3.57	1.11	46
				Total	3.63	1.14	71
			Total	Young	3.73	1.19	26
				Old	3.50	1.14	66
				Total	3.57	1.15	92
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	3.67	1.15	3
				Old	3.25	1.57	16
				Total	3.32	1.49	19
			Staff	Young	3.89	1.03	28
				Old	3.46	1.33	26
				Total	3.69	1.19	54
			Total	Young	3.87	1.02	31
				Old	3.38	1.41	42
				Total	3.59	1.28	73
		no degree	Management	Young	3.25	1.50	4
				Old	3.00	1.87	5
				Total	3.11	1.62	9
			Staff	Young	4.04	1.26	50
				Old	4.45	.74	42
				Total	4.23	1.07	92
			Total	Young	3.98	1.28	54
				Old	4.30	1.00	47
				Total	4.13	1.16	101
		Total	Management	Young	3.43	1.27	7
				Old	3.19	1.60	21
				Total	3.25	1.51	28
			Staff	Young	3.99	1.18	78
				Old	4.07	1.11	68
				Total	4.03	1.14	146
			Total	Young	3.94	1.19	85
				Old	3.87	1.29	89
				Total	3.90	1.24	174
	Total	yes degree	Management	Young	3.50	1.00	4
				Old	3.15	1.49	27
				Total	3.19	1.42	31
			Staff	Young	3.93	.94	43
				Old	3.45	1.17	44
				Total	3.69	1.08	87
			Total	Young	3.89	.94	47
				Old	3.34	1.30	71
				Total	3.56	1.20	118
		no degree	Management	Young	3.25	1.50	4
				Old	3.50	1.29	14
				Total	3.44	1.29	18
			Staff	Young	3.93	1.34	60
				Old	4.13	1.03	70
				Total	4.04	1.18	130
			Total	Young	3.89	1.35	64
				Old	4.02	1.10	84
				Total	3.97	1.21	148
		Total	Management	Young	3.37	1.19	8
				Old	3.27	1.41	41
				Total	3.29	1.37	49
			Staff	Young	3.93	1.18	103
				Old	3.87	1.13	114
				Total	3.90	1.15	217
			Total	Young	3.89	1.19	111
				Old	3.71	1.24	155
				Total	3.79	1.22	266
absenteeism	Male	yes	Management	Young	4.00	.	1

OTHERS		degree					
				Old	3.73	1.19	11
				Total	3.75	1.14	12
			Staff	Young	4.00	.93	15
				Old	3.50	.71	18
				Total	3.73	.84	33
			Total	Young	4.00	.89	16
				Old	3.59	.91	29
				Total	3.73	.91	45
		no degree	Management	Old	3.11	.60	9
				Total	3.11	.60	9
			Staff	Young	4.20	.92	10
				Old	3.96	1.07	28
				Total	4.03	1.03	38
			Total	Young	4.20	.92	10
				Old	3.76	1.04	37
				Total	3.85	1.02	47
		Total	Management	Young	4.00	.	1
				Old	3.45	1.00	20
				Total	3.48	.98	21
			Staff	Young	4.08	.91	25
				Old	3.78	.96	46
				Total	3.89	.95	71
			Total	Young	4.08	.89	26
				Old	3.68	.98	66
				Total	3.79	.97	92
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	4.33	.58	3
				Old	3.31	1.58	16
				Total	3.47	1.50	19
			Staff	Young	4.39	.96	28
				Old	4.08	1.02	26
				Total	4.24	.99	54
			Total	Young	4.39	.92	31
				Old	3.79	1.30	42
				Total	4.04	1.18	73
		no degree	Management	Young	2.75	1.26	4
				Old	2.40	1.52	5
				Total	2.56	1.33	9
			Staff	Young	4.50	.89	50
				Old	4.60	.80	42
				Total	4.54	.84	92
			Total	Young	4.37	1.01	54
				Old	4.36	1.11	47
				Total	4.37	1.06	101
		Total	Management	Young	3.43	1.27	7
				Old	3.10	1.58	21
				Total	3.18	1.49	28
			Staff	Young	4.46	.91	78
				Old	4.40	.92	68
				Total	4.43	.91	146
			Total	Young	4.38	.98	85
				Old	4.09	1.23	89
				Total	4.23	1.12	174
	Total	yes degree	Management	Young	4.25	.50	4
				Old	3.48	1.42	27
				Total	3.58	1.36	31
			Staff	Young	4.26	.95	43
				Old	3.84	.94	44
				Total	4.05	.96	87
			Total	Young	4.26	.92	47
				Old	3.70	1.15	71
				Total	3.92	1.10	118
		no degree	Management	Young	2.75	1.26	4
				Old	2.86	1.03	14
				Total	2.83	1.04	18

			Staff	Young	4.45	.89	60
				Old	4.34	.96	70
				Total	4.39	.93	130
			Total	Young	4.34	1.00	64
				Old	4.10	1.12	84
				Total	4.20	1.07	148
		Total	Management	Young	3.50	1.20	8
				Old	3.27	1.32	41
				Total	3.31	1.29	49
			Staff	Young	4.37	.92	103
				Old	4.15	.98	114
				Total	4.25	.96	217
			Total	Young	4.31	.96	111
				Old	3.92	1.15	155
				Total	4.08	1.09	266
Transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	2.00	.	1
				Old	3.73	1.19	11
				Total	3.58	1.24	12
			Staff	Young	3.20	1.47	15
				Old	2.94	1.26	18
				Total	3.06	1.34	33
			Total	Young	3.13	1.45	16
				Old	3.24	1.27	29
				Total	3.20	1.32	45
		no degree	Management	Old	3.33	1.12	9
				Total	3.33	1.12	9
			Staff	Young	4.20	1.14	10
				Old	3.93	1.12	28
				Total	4.00	1.12	38
			Total	Young	4.20	1.14	10
				Old	3.78	1.13	37
				Total	3.87	1.13	47
		Total	Management	Young	2.00	.	1
				Old	3.55	1.15	20
				Total	3.48	1.17	21
			Staff	Young	3.60	1.41	25
				Old	3.54	1.26	46
				Total	3.56	1.31	71
			Total	Young	3.54	1.42	26
				Old	3.55	1.22	66
				Total	3.54	1.27	92
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	3.00	2.00	3
				Old	3.75	1.39	16
				Total	3.63	1.46	19
			Staff	Young	3.25	1.46	28
				Old	4.08	1.09	26
				Total	3.65	1.35	54
			Total	Young	3.23	1.48	31
				Old	3.95	1.21	42
				Total	3.64	1.37	73
		no degree	Management	Young	2.75	1.26	4
				Old	4.20	.84	5
				Total	3.56	1.24	9
			Staff	Young	3.98	1.10	50
				Old	3.74	1.33	42
				Total	3.87	1.21	92
			Total	Young	3.89	1.14	54
				Old	3.79	1.28	47
				Total	3.84	1.21	101
		Total	Management	Young	2.86	1.46	7
				Old	3.86	1.28	21
				Total	3.61	1.37	28
			Staff	Young	3.72	1.28	78

				Old	3.87	1.24	68
				Total	3.79	1.26	146
			Total	Young	3.65	1.31	85
				Old	3.87	1.24	89
				Total	3.76	1.28	174
	Total	yes degree	Management	Young	2.75	1.71	4
				Old	3.74	1.29	27
				Total	3.61	1.36	31
			Staff	Young	3.23	1.44	43
				Old	3.61	1.28	44
				Total	3.43	1.37	87
			Total	Young	3.19	1.45	47
				Old	3.66	1.28	71
				Total	3.47	1.36	118
		no degree	Management	Young	2.75	1.26	4
				Old	3.64	1.08	14
				Total	3.44	1.15	18
			Staff	Young	4.02	1.10	60
				Old	3.81	1.24	70
				Total	3.91	1.18	130
			Total	Young	3.94	1.14	64
				Old	3.79	1.21	84
				Total	3.85	1.18	148
		Total	Management	Young	2.75	1.39	8
				Old	3.71	1.21	41
				Total	3.55	1.28	49
			Staff	Young	3.69	1.31	103
				Old	3.74	1.26	114
				Total	3.71	1.28	217
			Total	Young	3.62	1.33	111
				Old	3.73	1.24	155
				Total	3.68	1.28	266
Exit organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	2.00	.	1
				Old	3.09	1.58	11
				Total	3.00	1.54	12
			Staff	Young	2.47	1.41	15
				Old	3.72	1.53	18
				Total	3.15	1.58	33
			Total	Young	2.44	1.36	16
				Old	3.48	1.55	29
				Total	3.11	1.56	45
		no degree	Management	Old	2.89	1.36	9
				Total	2.89	1.36	9
			Staff	Young	2.20	1.55	10
				Old	1.89	1.13	28
				Total	1.97	1.24	38
			Total	Young	2.20	1.55	10
				Old	2.14	1.25	37
				Total	2.15	1.30	47
		Total	Management	Young	2.00	.	1
				Old	3.00	1.45	20
				Total	2.95	1.43	21
			Staff	Young	2.36	1.44	25
				Old	2.61	1.57	46
				Total	2.52	1.52	71
			Total	Young	2.35	1.41	26
				Old	2.73	1.53	66
				Total	2.62	1.50	92
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	2.67	2.08	3
				Old	2.06	1.12	16
				Total	2.16	1.26	19
			Staff	Young	2.25	1.38	28
				Old	3.46	1.61	26

				Total	2.83	1.60	54
			Total	Young	2.29	1.42	31
				Old	2.93	1.58	42
				Total	2.66	1.54	73
		no degree	Management	Young	2.00	.82	4
				Old	4.20	.84	5
				Total	3.22	1.39	9
			Staff	Young	3.12	1.38	50
				Old	2.26	1.23	42
				Total	2.73	1.38	92
			Total	Young	3.04	1.37	54
				Old	2.47	1.33	47
				Total	2.77	1.38	101
		Total	Management	Young	2.29	1.38	7
				Old	2.57	1.40	21
				Total	2.50	1.37	28
			Staff	Young	2.81	1.43	78
				Old	2.72	1.49	68
				Total	2.77	1.46	146
			Total	Young	2.76	1.43	85
				Old	2.69	1.47	89
				Total	2.72	1.44	174
	Total	yes degree	Management	Young	2.50	1.73	4
				Old	2.48	1.40	27
				Total	2.48	1.41	31
			Staff	Young	2.33	1.38	43
				Old	3.57	1.56	44
				Total	2.95	1.59	87
			Total	Young	2.34	1.39	47
				Old	3.15	1.58	71
				Total	2.83	1.55	118
		no degree	Management	Young	2.00	.82	4
				Old	3.36	1.34	14
				Total	3.06	1.35	18
			Staff	Young	2.97	1.44	60
				Old	2.11	1.20	70
				Total	2.51	1.38	130
			Total	Young	2.91	1.42	64
				Old	2.32	1.30	84
				Total	2.57	1.38	148
		Total	Management	Young	2.25	1.28	8
				Old	2.78	1.42	41
				Total	2.69	1.40	49
			Staff	Young	2.70	1.44	103
				Old	2.68	1.52	114
				Total	2.69	1.48	217
			Total	Young	2.67	1.43	111
				Old	2.70	1.49	155
				Total	2.69	1.46	266

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices[a]

Box's M	375.209
F	1.406
df1	150
df2	1218
Sig.	.002

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+GENDER+DEGREE+POS2+AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * AGE2+POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * POS2 * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2

Multivariate Tests[b]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.856	292.892[a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.144	292.892[a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	5.929	292.892[a]	5.000	247.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	5.929	292.892[a]	5.000	247.000	.000
GENDER	Pillai's Trace	.013	.633[a]	5.000	247.000	.675
	Wilks' Lambda	.987	.633[a]	5.000	247.000	.675
	Hotelling's Trace	.013	.633[a]	5.000	247.000	.675
	Roy's Largest Root	.013	.633[a]	5.000	247.000	.675
DEGREE	Pillai's Trace	.056	2.905[a]	5.000	247.000	.014
	Wilks' Lambda	.944	2.905[a]	5.000	247.000	.014
	Hotelling's Trace	.059	2.905[a]	5.000	247.000	.014
	Roy's Largest Root	.059	2.905[a]	5.000	247.000	.014
POS2	Pillai's Trace	.046	2.366[a]	5.000	247.000	.040
	Wilks' Lambda	.954	2.366[a]	5.000	247.000	.040
	Hotelling's Trace	.048	2.366[a]	5.000	247.000	.040
	Roy's Largest Root	.048	2.366[a]	5.000	247.000	.040
AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.041	2.101[a]	5.000	247.000	.066
	Wilks' Lambda	.959	2.101[a]	5.000	247.000	.066
	Hotelling's Trace	.043	2.101[a]	5.000	247.000	.066
	Roy's Largest Root	.043	2.101[a]	5.000	247.000	.066
GENDER * DEGREE	Pillai's Trace	.044	2.272[a]	5.000	247.000	.048
	Wilks' Lambda	.956	2.272[a]	5.000	247.000	.048
	Hotelling's Trace	.046	2.272[a]	5.000	247.000	.048
	Roy's Largest Root	.046	2.272[a]	5.000	247.000	.048
GENDER * POS2	Pillai's Trace	.019	.932[a]	5.000	247.000	.461
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	.932[a]	5.000	247.000	.461
	Hotelling's Trace	.019	.932[a]	5.000	247.000	.461
	Roy's Largest Root	.019	.932[a]	5.000	247.000	.461
DEGREE * POS2	Pillai's Trace	.078	4.201[a]	5.000	247.000	.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.922	4.201[a]	5.000	247.000	.001
	Hotelling's Trace	.085	4.201[a]	5.000	247.000	.001
	Roy's Largest Root	.085	4.201[a]	5.000	247.000	.001
GENDER * DEGREE * POS2	Pillai's Trace	.049	2.569[a]	5.000	247.000	.027
	Wilks' Lambda	.951	2.569[a]	5.000	247.000	.027
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	2.569[a]	5.000	247.000	.027
	Roy's Largest Root	.052	2.569[a]	5.000	247.000	.027
GENDER * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.007	.364[a]	5.000	247.000	.873
	Wilks' Lambda	.993	.364[a]	5.000	247.000	.873
	Hotelling's Trace	.007	.364[a]	5.000	247.000	.873
	Roy's Largest Root	.007	.364[a]	5.000	247.000	.873
DEGREE * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.009	.438[a]	5.000	247.000	.822
	Wilks' Lambda	.991	.438[a]	5.000	247.000	.822
	Hotelling's Trace	.009	.438[a]	5.000	247.000	.822
	Roy's Largest Root	.009	.438[a]	5.000	247.000	.822
GENDER * DEGREE * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.010	.502[a]	5.000	247.000	.775
	Wilks' Lambda	.990	.502[a]	5.000	247.000	.775
	Hotelling's Trace	.010	.502[a]	5.000	247.000	.775
	Roy's Largest Root	.010	.502[a]	5.000	247.000	.775
POS2 * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.025	1.285[a]	5.000	247.000	.271
	Wilks' Lambda	.975	1.285[a]	5.000	247.000	.271
	Hotelling's Trace	.026	1.285[a]	5.000	247.000	.271
	Roy's Largest Root	.026	1.285[a]	5.000	247.000	.271
GENDER * POS2 * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.010	.490[a]	5.000	247.000	.784
	Wilks' Lambda	.990	.490[a]	5.000	247.000	.784
	Hotelling's Trace	.010	.490[a]	5.000	247.000	.784
	Roy's Largest Root	.010	.490[a]	5.000	247.000	.784
DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.060	3.166[a]	5.000	247.000	.009
	Wilks' Lambda	.940	3.166[a]	5.000	247.000	.009
	Hotelling's Trace	.064	3.166[a]	5.000	247.000	.009
	Roy's Largest Root	.064	3.166[a]	5.000	247.000	.009
GENDER * DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2	Pillai's Trace	.000	.[a]	.000	.000	.
	Wilks' Lambda	1.000	.[a]	.000	249.000	.
	Hotelling's Trace	.000	.[a]	.000	2.000	.
	Roy's Largest Root	.000	.000[a]	5.000	246.000	1.000

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept+GENDER+DEGREE+POS2+AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * AGE2+POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * POS2 * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
minimal work OTHERS	2.606	14	251	.002
lateness OTHERS	2.514	14	251	.002
absenteeism OTHERS	2.465	14	251	.003
transfers within organisation OTHERS	1.466	14	251	.124
exit organisation OTHERS	1.511	14	251	.107

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept+GENDER+DEGREE+POS2+AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE+GENDER * POS2+DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2+GENDER * AGE2+DEGREE * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * AGE2+POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * POS2 * AGE2+DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2+GENDER * DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	minimal work OTHERS	43.207	14	3.086	2.873	.000
	lateness OTHERS	46.076	14	3.291	2.383	.004
	absenteeism OTHERS	70.009	14	5.001	5.158	.000
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	41.745	14	2.982	1.920	.025
	exit organisation OTHERS	100.166	14	7.155	3.846	.000
Intercept	minimal work OTHERS	929.597	1	929.597	865.436	.000
	lateness OTHERS	799.739	1	799.739	578.970	.000
	absenteeism OTHERS	904.176	1	904.176	932.665	.000
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	739.795	1	739.795	476.456	.000
	exit organisation OTHERS	435.089	1	435.089	233.881	.000
GENDER	minimal work OTHERS	.552	1	.552	.514	.474
	lateness OTHERS	.546	1	.546	.396	.530
	absenteeism OTHERS	.229	1	.229	.237	.627
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	3.132	1	3.132	2.017	.157
	exit organisation OTHERS	2.704	1	2.704	1.453	.229
DEGREE	minimal work OTHERS	3.080	1	3.080	2.867	.092
	lateness OTHERS	.280	1	.280	.202	.653
	absenteeism OTHERS	2.913	1	2.913	3.004	.084
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	1.287	1	1.287	.829	.364
	exit organisation OTHERS	1.919	1	1.919	1.032	.311
POS2	minimal work OTHERS	5.071	1	5.071	4.721	.031

	lateness OTHERS	4.792	1	4.792	3.469	.064
	absenteeism OTHERS	10.178	1	10.178	10.499	.001
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	4.458	1	4.458	2.871	.091
	exit organisation OTHERS	.351	1	.351	.189	.664
AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	1.776	1	1.776	1.653	.200
	lateness OTHERS	.201	1	.201	.145	.704
	absenteeism OTHERS	1.759	1	1.759	1.814	.179
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	7.176	1	7.176	4.622	.033
	exit organisation OTHERS	7.724	1	7.724	4.152	.043
GENDER * DEGREE	minimal work OTHERS	1.170E-02	1	1.170E-02	.011	.917
	lateness OTHERS	1.842E-02	1	1.842E-02	.013	.908
	absenteeism OTHERS	.181	1	.181	.187	.666
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	1.057E-02	1	1.057E-02	.007	.934
	exit organisation OTHERS	19.816	1	19.816	10.652	.001
GENDER * POS2	minimal work OTHERS	7.499E-02	1	7.499E-02	.070	.792
	lateness OTHERS	.260	1	.260	.188	.665
	absenteeism OTHERS	1.927	1	1.927	1.988	.160
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	1.129	1	1.129	.727	.395
	exit organisation OTHERS	1.112	1	1.112	.598	.440
DEGREE * POS2	minimal work OTHERS	5.917	1	5.917	5.509	.020
	lateness OTHERS	.361	1	.361	.261	.610
	absenteeism OTHERS	11.992	1	11.992	12.370	.001
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	3.804	1	3.804	2.450	.119
	exit organisation OTHERS	3.054	1	3.054	1.641	.201
GENDER * DEGREE * POS2	minimal work OTHERS	2.244	1	2.244	2.089	.150
	lateness OTHERS	5.361	1	5.361	3.881	.050
	absenteeism OTHERS	.199	1	.199	.205	.651
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	7.597	1	7.597	4.893	.028
	exit organisation OTHERS	4.730	1	4.730	2.543	.112
GENDER * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	.139	1	.139	.129	.719
	lateness OTHERS	1.996E-02	1	1.996E-02	.014	.904
	absenteeism OTHERS	6.162E-02	1	6.162E-02	.064	.801
	transfers within organisation	9.634E-02	1	9.634E-02	.062	.803

	OTHERS					
	exit organisation OTHERS	2.999	1	2.999	1.612	.205
DEGREE * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	2.330	1	2.330	2.169	.142
	lateness OTHERS	1.697	1	1.697	1.229	.269
	absenteeism OTHERS	1.148	1	1.148	1.184	.278
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	1.978E-02	1	1.978E-02	.013	.910
	exit organisation OTHERS	3.768E-02	1	3.768E-02	.020	.887
GENDER * DEGREE * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	.324	1	.324	.301	.583
	lateness OTHERS	5.456E-03	1	5.456E-03	.004	.950
	absenteeism OTHERS	5.739E-02	1	5.739E-02	.059	.808
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	2.949	1	2.949	1.899	.169
	exit organisation OTHERS	.684	1	.684	.367	.545
POS2 * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	.832	1	.832	.775	.380
	lateness OTHERS	5.426E-03	1	5.426E-03	.004	.950
	absenteeism OTHERS	.178	1	.178	.184	.668
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	7.247	1	7.247	4.668	.032
	exit organisation OTHERS	2.161	1	2.161	1.162	.282
GENDER * POS2 * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	8.274E-02	1	8.274E-02	.077	.782
	lateness OTHERS	.174	1	.174	.126	.723
	absenteeism OTHERS	.516	1	.516	.533	.466
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	2.521	1	2.521	1.623	.204
	exit organisation OTHERS	1.620	1	1.620	.871	.352
DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	5.283E-02	1	5.283E-02	.049	.825
	lateness OTHERS	.476	1	.476	.344	.558
	absenteeism OTHERS	6.995E-02	1	6.995E-02	.072	.788
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	3.246	1	3.246	2.091	.149
	exit organisation OTHERS	24.646	1	24.646	13.248	.000
GENDER * DEGREE * POS2 * AGE2	minimal work OTHERS	.000	0	.	.	.
	lateness OTHERS	.000	0	.	.	.
	absenteeism OTHERS	.000	0	.	.	.
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	.000	0	.	.	.
	exit organisation	.000	0	.	.	.

	OTHERS					
Error	minimal work OTHERS	269.609	251	1.074		
	lateness OTHERS	346.710	251	1.381		
	absenteeism OTHERS	243.333	251	.969		
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	389.729	251	1.553		
	exit organisation OTHERS	466.936	251	1.860		
Total	minimal work OTHERS	4625.000	266			
	lateness OTHERS	4205.000	266			
	absenteeism OTHERS	4739.000	266			
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	4042.000	266			
	exit organisation OTHERS	2489.000	266			
Corrected Total	minimal work OTHERS	312.816	265			
	lateness OTHERS	392.786	265			
	absenteeism OTHERS	313.342	265			
	transfers within organisation OTHERS	431.474	265			
	exit organisation OTHERS	567.102	265			

a R Squared = .138 (Adjusted R Squared = .090)
b R Squared = .117 (Adjusted R Squared = .068)
c R Squared = .223 (Adjusted R Squared = .180)
d R Squared = .097 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)
e R Squared = .177 (Adjusted R Squared = .131)

Estimated Marginal Means

1. Gender

Dependent Variable	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	3.782[a]	.179	3.430	4.134
	Female	3.892[a]	.127	3.642	4.143
lateness OTHERS	Male	3.466[a]	.203	3.067	3.866
	Female	3.627[a]	.144	3.343	3.911
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	3.786[a]	.170	3.451	4.121
	Female	3.795[a]	.121	3.557	4.033
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	3.333[a]	.215	2.910	3.757
	Female	3.593[a]	.153	3.292	3.894
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	2.609[a]	.235	2.145	3.072
	Female	2.753[a]	.167	2.423	3.082

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

2. University Degree

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	yes degree	3.976	.168	3.645	4.307
	no degree	3.686[a]	.127	3.435	3.937
lateness OTHERS	yes degree	3.464	.191	3.089	3.840
	no degree	3.652[a]	.144	3.367	3.936
absenteeism OTHERS	yes degree	3.918	.160	3.603	4.232
	no degree	3.646[a]	.121	3.407	3.884
transfers within organisation OTHERS	yes degree	3.244	.202	2.846	3.642
	no degree	3.733[a]	.153	3.431	4.035
exit organisation OTHERS	yes degree	2.715	.221	2.279	3.151
	no degree	2.652[a]	.168	2.322	2.982

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

3. Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Management	3.565[a]	.212	3.148	3.982
	Staff	4.082[a]	.079	3.926	4.238
lateness OTHERS	Management	3.278[a]	.240	2.805	3.751
	Staff	3.792[a]	.090	3.614	3.969
absenteeism OTHERS	Management	3.376[a]	.201	2.980	3.773
	Staff	4.154[a]	.075	4.005	4.302
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Management	3.252[a]	.255	2.750	3.753
	Staff	3.665[a]	.095	3.477	3.853
exit organisation OTHERS	Management	2.701[a]	.279	2.152	3.250
	Staff	2.672[a]	.105	2.466	2.878

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

4. Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Young	4.065[a]	.199	3.674	4.457
	Old	3.644[a]	.102	3.444	3.845
lateness OTHERS	Young	3.607[a]	.226	3.163	4.051
	Old	3.504[a]	.115	3.276	3.731
absenteeism OTHERS	Young	4.025[a]	.189	3.653	4.397
	Old	3.586[a]	.097	3.395	3.776
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Young	3.197[a]	.239	2.726	3.668
	Old	3.712[a]	.122	3.471	3.953
exit organisation OTHERS	Young	2.386[a]	.262	1.871	2.902
	Old	2.948[a]	.134	2.684	3.212

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

5. Gender * University Degree

Dependent Variable	Gender	University Degree	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	yes degree	3.872	.285	3.310	4.434
		no degree	3.662[a]	.172	3.324	4.000
	Female	yes degree	4.080[a]	.178	3.730	4.430
		no degree	3.704[a]	.182	3.346	4.063
lateness OTHERS	Male	yes degree	3.361	.324	2.724	3.998
		no degree	3.607[a]	.195	3.224	3.990
	Female	yes degree	3.568[a]	.201	3.171	3.964
		no degree	3.686[a]	.206	3.279	4.092
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	yes degree	3.807	.271	3.273	4.341
		no degree	3.758[a]	.163	3.437	4.080
	Female	yes degree	4.029[a]	.169	3.697	4.361
		no degree	3.561[a]	.173	3.221	3.902
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	2.968	.343	2.292	3.644
		no degree	3.821[a]	.206	3.414	4.227
	Female	yes degree	3.519[a]	.214	3.099	3.940
		no degree	3.667[a]	.219	3.236	4.098
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	2.820	.376	2.080	3.560
		no degree	2.327[a]	.226	1.882	2.772
	Female	yes degree	2.610[a]	.234	2.150	3.071
		no degree	2.895[a]	.240	2.424	3.367

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

6. Gender * Position - Management and Staff

ependent	Gender	Position - Management and	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
nimal work	Male	Managemen	3.559 [a]	.379	2.813	4.305
		Staff	3.949 [a]	.132	3.690	4.209
	Female	Managemen	3.570 [a]	.238	3.100	4.039
		Staff	4.215 [a]	.089	4.039	4.390
eness	Male	Managemen	3.259 [a]	.430	2.413	4.105
		Staff	3.622 [a]	.149	3.328	3.916
	Female	Managemen	3.292 [a]	.270	2.759	3.824
		Staff	3.962 [a]	.101	3.763	4.160
senteeism	Male	Managemen	3.613 [a]	.360	2.904	4.321
		Staff	3.916 [a]	.125	3.670	4.162
	Female	Managemen	3.199 [a]	.226	2.753	3.645
		Staff	4.391 [a]	.085	4.225	4.558
nsfers within ganisation	Male	Managemen	3.020 [a]	.455	2.123	3.917
		Staff	3.568 [a]	.158	3.257	3.880
	Female	Managemen	3.425 [a]	.287	2.861	3.989
		Staff	3.761 [a]	.107	3.551	3.972
it organisation THER	Male	Managemen	2.660 [a]	.498	1.678	3.642
		Staff	2.570 [a]	.173	2.229	2.912
	Female	Managemen	2.732 [a]	.314	2.115	3.350
		Staff	2.773 [a]	.117	2.543	3.004

a. Based on modified population marginal

7. University Degree * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	yes degree	Management	3.921	.316	3.299	4.543
		Staff	4.031	.115	3.805	4.257
	no degree	Management	3.091[a]	.259	2.581	3.600
		Staff	4.133[a]	.110	3.917	4.349
lateness OTHERS	yes degree	Management	3.229	.358	2.524	3.935
		Staff	3.700	.130	3.443	3.956
	no degree	Management	3.343[a]	.293	2.765	3.921
		Staff	3.884[a]	.124	3.639	4.129
absenteeism OTHERS	yes degree	Management	3.843	.300	3.252	4.434
		Staff	3.992	.109	3.778	4.207
	no degree	Management	2.754[a]	.246	2.270	3.238
		Staff	4.315[a]	.104	4.109	4.520
transfers within organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Management	3.119	.380	2.371	3.867
		Staff	3.368	.138	3.096	3.640
	no degree	Management	3.428[a]	.311	2.815	4.041
		Staff	3.962[a]	.132	3.702	4.222
exit organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Management	2.455	.416	1.636	3.274
		Staff	2.975	.151	2.677	3.273
	no degree	Management	3.030[a]	.341	2.359	3.700
		Staff	2.369[a]	.144	2.084	2.653

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

8. Gender * University Degree * Position - Management and Staff

Dependent Variable	Gender	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	3.727	.541	2.661	4.793
			Staff	4.017	.181	3.660	4.373
		no degree	Management	3.222[a]	.345	2.542	3.903
			Staff	3.882[a]	.191	3.506	4.258
	Female	yes degree	Management	4.115[a]	.326	3.472	4.757
			Staff	4.045[a]	.141	3.767	4.323
		no degree	Management	3.025[a]	.348	2.340	3.710
			Staff	4.384[a]	.108	4.170	4.597
lateness OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	3.000	.614	1.791	4.209
			Staff	3.722	.205	3.318	4.127
		no degree	Management	3.778[a]	.392	3.006	4.549
			Staff	3.521[a]	.216	3.095	3.948
	Female	yes degree	Management	3.458[a]	.370	2.730	4.186
			Staff	3.677[a]	.160	3.362	3.992
		no degree	Management	3.125[a]	.394	2.349	3.901
			Staff	4.246[a]	.123	4.004	4.488
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	3.864	.514	2.851	4.876
			Staff	3.750	.172	3.411	4.089
		no degree	Management	3.111[a]	.328	2.465	3.757
			Staff	4.082[a]	.181	3.725	4.439
	Female	yes degree	Management	3.823[a]	.310	3.213	4.433
			Staff	4.235[a]	.134	3.971	4.499
		no degree	Management	2.575[a]	.330	1.925	3.225
			Staff	4.548[a]	.103	4.345	4.751
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	2.864	.651	1.582	4.145
			Staff	3.072	.218	2.643	3.501
		no degree	Management	3.333[a]	.415	2.515	4.151
			Staff	4.064[a]	.230	3.612	4.516
	Female	yes degree	Management	3.375[a]	.392	2.603	4.147
			Staff	3.663[a]	.170	3.329	3.998
		no degree	Management	3.475[a]	.418	2.652	4.298
			Staff	3.859[a]	.130	3.602	4.116
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	2.545	.712	1.143	3.948
			Staff	3.094	.238	2.625	3.564
		no degree	Management	2.889[a]	.455	1.993	3.784
			Staff	2.046[a]	.251	1.552	2.541
	Female	yes degree	Management	2.365[a]	.429	1.520	3.210
			Staff	2.856[a]	.186	2.490	3.222
		no degree	Management	3.100[a]	.457	2.199	4.001
			Staff	2.691[a]	.143	2.410	2.972

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

9. Gender * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Gender	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	Young	4.000[a]	.373	3.265	4.735
		Old	3.619[a]	.140	3.342	3.895
	Female	Young	4.115[a]	.207	3.707	4.522
		Old	3.670[a]	.148	3.379	3.961
lateness OTHERS	Male	Young	3.467[a]	.423	2.633	4.300
		Old	3.466[a]	.159	3.153	3.780
	Female	Young	3.712[a]	.235	3.250	4.175
		Old	3.541[a]	.167	3.211	3.871
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	Young	4.067[a]	.354	3.368	4.765
		Old	3.576[a]	.133	3.313	3.838
	Female	Young	3.994[a]	.197	3.607	4.382
		Old	3.596[a]	.140	3.320	3.872
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	Young	3.133[a]	.449	2.250	4.017
		Old	3.483[a]	.169	3.151	3.816
	Female	Young	3.245[a]	.249	2.755	3.735
		Old	3.941[a]	.178	3.592	4.291
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	Young	2.222[a]	.491	1.255	3.189
		Old	2.899[a]	.185	2.535	3.262
	Female	Young	2.509[a]	.273	1.972	3.046
		Old	2.996[a]	.194	2.614	3.379

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

10. University Degree * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	yes degree	Young	4.297	.310	3.686	4.908
		Old	3.655	.129	3.401	3.909
	no degree	Young	3.757[a]	.210	3.343	4.171
		Old	3.634[a]	.158	3.323	3.944
lateness OTHERS	yes degree	Young	3.640	.352	2.947	4.333
		Old	3.289	.146	3.001	3.577
	no degree	Young	3.563[a]	.238	3.094	4.033
		Old	3.718[a]	.179	3.366	4.071
absenteeism OTHERS	yes degree	Young	4.182	.295	3.601	4.762
		Old	3.654	.122	3.413	3.895
	no degree	Young	3.817[a]	.200	3.423	4.210
		Old	3.518[a]	.150	3.223	3.813
transfers within organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Young	2.863	.373	2.127	3.598
		Old	3.625	.155	3.319	3.930
	no degree	Young	3.643[a]	.253	3.146	4.141
		Old	3.800[a]	.190	3.426	4.174
exit organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Young	2.346	.409	1.541	3.150
		Old	3.084	.170	2.750	3.418
	no degree	Young	2.440[a]	.277	1.895	2.985
		Old	2.811[a]	.208	2.402	3.220

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

11. Gender * University Degree * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Gender	University Degree	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Young	4.100	.535	3.046	5.154
			Old	3.644	.198	3.253	4.035
		no degree	Young	3.800[a]	.328	3.155	4.445
			Old	3.593[a]	.199	3.202	3.984
	Female	yes degree	Young	4.494[a]	.315	3.874	5.114
			Old	3.666[a]	.165	3.342	3.990
		no degree	Young	3.735[a]	.269	3.205	4.265
			Old	3.674[a]	.245	3.191	4.157
lateness OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Young	3.500	.607	2.305	4.695
			Old	3.222	.225	2.779	3.665
		no degree	Young	3.400[a]	.372	2.668	4.132
			Old	3.710[a]	.225	3.267	4.154
	Female	yes degree	Young	3.780[a]	.357	3.077	4.483
			Old	3.356[a]	.187	2.988	3.724
		no degree	Young	3.645[a]	.305	3.044	4.246
			Old	3.726[a]	.278	3.179	4.274
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Young	4.000	.508	2.999	5.001
			Old	3.614	.188	3.243	3.985
		no degree	Young	4.200[a]	.311	3.587	4.813
			Old	3.538[a]	.189	3.166	3.909
	Female	yes degree	Young	4.363[a]	.299	3.774	4.952
			Old	3.695[a]	.156	3.387	4.003
		no degree	Young	3.625[a]	.256	3.121	4.129
			Old	3.498[a]	.233	3.039	3.956
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Young	2.600	.643	1.333	3.867
			Old	3.336	.238	2.866	3.805
		no degree	Young	4.200[a]	.394	3.424	4.976
			Old	3.631[a]	.239	3.161	4.101
	Female	yes degree	Young	3.125[a]	.378	2.380	3.870
			Old	3.913[a]	.198	3.524	4.303
		no degree	Young	3.365[a]	.324	2.727	4.003
			Old	3.969[a]	.295	3.389	4.550
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Young	2.233	.704	.846	3.620
			Old	3.407	.261	2.893	3.921
		no degree	Young	2.200[a]	.431	1.351	3.049
			Old	2.391[a]	.261	1.876	2.906
	Female	yes degree	Young	2.458[a]	.414	1.642	3.274
			Old	2.762[a]	.217	2.335	3.189
		no degree	Young	2.560[a]	.354	1.862	3.258
			Old	3.231[a]	.323	2.596	3.866

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

12. Position - Management and Staff * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Position - Management and Staff	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Management	Young	3.972[a]	.435	3.116	4.828
		Old	3.260[a]	.177	2.912	3.608
	Staff	Young	4.135[a]	.122	3.895	4.376
		Old	4.029[a]	.102	3.829	4.229
lateness OTHERS	Management	Young	3.306[a]	.493	2.335	4.276
		Old	3.257[a]	.200	2.863	3.651
	Staff	Young	3.833[a]	.139	3.560	4.106
		Old	3.750[a]	.115	3.524	3.977
absenteeism OTHERS	Management	Young	3.694[a]	.413	2.881	4.508
		Old	3.138[a]	.168	2.807	3.468
	Staff	Young	4.273[a]	.116	4.045	4.502
		Old	4.034[a]	.096	3.844	4.224
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Management	Young	2.583[a]	.523	1.554	3.613
		Old	3.753[a]	.212	3.334	4.171
	Staff	Young	3.658[a]	.147	3.368	3.947
		Old	3.672[a]	.122	3.432	3.912
exit organisation OTHERS	Management	Young	2.222[a]	.572	1.096	3.349
		Old	3.061[a]	.232	2.603	3.518
	Staff	Young	2.509[a]	.161	2.192	2.826
		Old	2.835[a]	.134	2.571	3.098

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

13. Gender * Position - Management and Staff * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Gender	Position - Management and Staff	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	Management	Young	4.000[a]	1.036	1.959	6.041
			Old	3.338[a]	.233	2.880	3.797
		Staff	Young	4.000[a]	.212	3.583	4.417
			Old	3.899[a]	.157	3.590	4.207
	Female	Management	Young	3.958[a]	.396	3.179	4.738
			Old	3.181[a]	.266	2.658	3.704
		Staff	Young	4.271[a]	.122	4.030	4.512
			Old	4.158[a]	.129	3.904	4.413
lateness OTHERS	Male	Management	Young	3.000[a]	1.175	.685	5.315
			Old	3.389[a]	.264	2.869	3.909
		Staff	Young	3.700[a]	.240	3.228	4.172
			Old	3.544[a]	.178	3.194	3.893
	Female	Management	Young	3.458[a]	.449	2.574	4.342
			Old	3.125[a]	.301	2.532	3.718
		Staff	Young	3.966[a]	.139	3.693	4.240
			Old	3.957[a]	.147	3.668	4.246
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	Management	Young	4.000[a]	.985	2.061	5.939
			Old	3.419[a]	.221	2.983	3.855
		Staff	Young	4.100[a]	.201	3.704	4.496
			Old	3.732[a]	.149	3.439	4.025
	Female	Management	Young	3.542[a]	.376	2.801	4.282
			Old	2.856[a]	.252	2.359	3.353
		Staff	Young	4.446[a]	.116	4.218	4.675
			Old	4.336[a]	.123	4.094	4.578
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	Management	Young	2.000[a]	1.246	-.454	4.454
			Old	3.530[a]	.280	2.979	4.082
		Staff	Young	3.700[a]	.254	3.199	4.201
			Old	3.437[a]	.188	3.066	3.807
	Female	Management	Young	2.875[a]	.476	1.938	3.812
			Old	3.975[a]	.319	3.346	4.604
		Staff	Young	3.615[a]	.147	3.325	3.905
			Old	3.908[a]	.155	3.601	4.214
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	Management	Young	2.000[a]	1.364	-.686	4.686
			Old	2.990[a]	.307	2.386	3.594
		Staff	Young	2.333[a]	.278	1.785	2.882
			Old	2.808[a]	.206	2.402	3.213
	Female	Management	Young	2.333[a]	.521	1.308	3.359
			Old	3.131[a]	.349	2.443	3.819
		Staff	Young	2.685[a]	.161	2.368	3.002
			Old	2.862[a]	.170	2.527	3.197

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

14. University Degree * Position - Management and Staff * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	yes degree	Management	Young	4.333	.598	3.155	5.512
			Old	3.509	.203	3.109	3.908
		Staff	Young	4.261	.166	3.934	4.587
			Old	3.801	.159	3.488	4.114
	no degree	Management	Young	3.250[a]	.518	2.229	4.271
			Old	3.011[a]	.289	2.442	3.580
		Staff	Young	4.010[a]	.180	3.656	4.364
			Old	4.256[a]	.126	4.007	4.505
lateness OTHERS	yes degree	Management	Young	3.333	.679	1.997	4.670
			Old	3.125	.230	2.672	3.578
		Staff	Young	3.946	.188	3.576	4.317
			Old	3.453	.180	3.098	3.808
	no degree	Management	Young	3.250[a]	.588	2.093	4.407
			Old	3.389[a]	.328	2.743	4.034
		Staff	Young	3.720[a]	.204	3.319	4.121
			Old	4.048[a]	.143	3.765	4.330
absenteeism OTHERS	yes degree	Management	Young	4.167	.568	3.047	5.286
			Old	3.520	.193	3.140	3.900
		Staff	Young	4.196	.158	3.886	4.507
			Old	3.788	.151	3.491	4.086
	no degree	Management	Young	2.750[a]	.492	1.780	3.720
			Old	2.756[a]	.275	2.215	3.296
		Staff	Young	4.350[a]	.171	4.014	4.686
			Old	4.280[a]	.120	4.043	4.516
transfers within organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Management	Young	2.500	.719	1.083	3.917
			Old	3.739	.244	3.258	4.219
		Staff	Young	3.225	.199	2.832	3.618
			Old	3.511	.191	3.134	3.887
	no degree	Management	Young	2.750[a]	.623	1.523	3.977
			Old	3.767[a]	.348	3.082	4.451
		Staff	Young	4.090[a]	.216	3.665	4.515
			Old	3.833[a]	.152	3.534	4.133
exit organisation OTHERS	yes degree	Management	Young	2.333	.787	.782	3.884
			Old	2.577	.267	2.051	3.103
		Staff	Young	2.358	.218	1.929	2.788
			Old	3.592	.209	3.180	4.004
	no degree	Management	Young	2.000[a]	.682	.657	3.343
			Old	3.544[a]	.380	2.795	4.294
		Staff	Young	2.660[a]	.236	2.195	3.125
			Old	2.077[a]	.166	1.750	2.405

a. Based on modified population marginal mean.

15. Gender * University Degree * Position - Management and Staff * Age - Young and Old

Dependent Variable	Gender	University Degree	Position - Management and Staff	Age - Young and Old	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
minimal work OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	4.000	1.036	1.959	6.041
				Old	3.455	.312	2.839	4.070
			Staff	Young	4.200	.268	3.673	4.727
				Old	3.833	.244	3.352	4.314
		no degree	Management	Young	.[a]	.	.	.
				Old	3.222[b]	.345	2.542	3.903
			Staff	Young	3.800[b]	.328	3.155	4.445
				Old	3.964[b]	.196	3.579	4.350
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	4.667[b]	.598	3.488	5.845
				Old	3.563[b]	.259	3.052	4.073
			Staff	Young	4.321[b]	.196	3.936	4.707
				Old	3.769[b]	.203	3.369	4.170
		no degree	Management	Young	3.250[b]	.518	2.229	4.271
				Old	2.800[b]	.463	1.887	3.713
			Staff	Young	4.220[b]	.147	3.931	4.509
				Old	4.548[b]	.160	4.233	4.863
lateness OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	3.000	1.175	.685	5.315
				Old	3.000	.354	2.302	3.698
			Staff	Young	4.000	.303	3.402	4.598
				Old	3.444	.277	2.899	3.990
		no degree	Management	Young	.[a]	.	.	.
				Old	3.778[b]	.392	3.006	4.549
			Staff	Young	3.400[b]	.372	2.668	4.132
				Old	3.643[b]	.222	3.205	4.080
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	3.667[b]	.679	2.330	5.003
				Old	3.250[b]	.294	2.671	3.829
			Staff	Young	3.893[b]	.222	3.455	4.330
				Old	3.462[b]	.230	3.008	3.915
		no degree	Management	Young	3.250[b]	.588	2.093	4.407
				Old	3.000[b]	.526	1.965	4.035
			Staff	Young	4.040[b]	.166	3.713	4.367
				Old	4.452[b]	.181	4.095	4.810
absenteeism OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	4.000	.985	2.061	5.939
				Old	3.727	.297	3.143	4.312
			Staff	Young	4.000	.254	3.499	4.501
				Old	3.500	.232	3.043	3.957
		no degree	Management	Young	.[a]	.	.	.
				Old	3.111[b]	.328	2.465	3.757
			Staff	Young	4.200[b]	.311	3.587	4.813
				Old	3.964[b]	.186	3.598	4.331
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	4.333[b]	.568	3.214	5.453
				Old	3.313[b]	.246	2.828	3.797
			Staff	Young	4.393[b]	.186	4.026	4.759
				Old	4.077[b]	.193	3.697	4.457
		no degree	Management	Young	2.750[b]	.492	1.780	3.720
				Old	2.400[b]	.440	1.533	3.267
			Staff	Young	4.500[b]	.139	4.226	4.774
				Old	4.595[b]	.152	4.296	4.894
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	2.000	1.246	-.454	4.454
				Old	3.727	.376	2.987	4.467
			Staff	Young	3.200	.322	2.566	3.834
				Old	2.944	.294	2.366	3.523
		no degree	Management	Young	.[a]	.	.	.
				Old	3.333[b]	.415	2.515	4.151
			Staff	Young	4.200[b]	.394	3.424	4.976
				Old	3.929[b]	.235	3.465	4.392
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	3.000[b]	.719	1.583	4.417
				Old	3.750[b]	.312	3.136	4.364
			Staff	Young	3.250[b]	.235	2.786	3.714
				Old	4.077[b]	.244	3.596	4.558
		no degree	Management	Young	2.750[b]	.623	1.523	3.977
				Old	4.200[b]	.557	3.102	5.298
			Staff	Young	3.980[b]	.176	3.633	4.327
				Old	3.738[b]	.192	3.359	4.117
exit organisation OTHERS	Male	yes degree	Management	Young	2.000	1.364	-.686	4.686
				Old	3.091	.411	2.281	3.901
			Staff	Young	2.467	.352	1.773	3.160
				Old	3.722	.321	3.089	4.355
		no degree	Management	Young	.[a]	.	.	.
				Old	2.889[b]	.455	1.993	3.784
			Staff	Young	2.200[b]	.431	1.351	3.049
				Old	1.893[b]	.258	1.385	2.401
	Female	yes degree	Management	Young	2.667[b]	.787	1.116	4.218
				Old	2.062[b]	.341	1.391	2.734
			Staff	Young	2.250[b]	.258	1.742	2.758
				Old	3.462[b]	.267	2.935	3.988
		no degree	Management	Young	2.000[b]	.682	.657	3.343
				Old	4.200[b]	.610	2.999	5.401
			Staff	Young	3.120[b]	.193	2.740	3.500
				Old	2.262[b]	.210	1.847	2.676

a. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimable.

b. Based on modified population marginal mean.

Chi-Square Results

Frequencies – Age (Young and Old)

Statistics

Age - Young and Old

N	Valid	655
	Missing	0

Age - Young and Old

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Young	317	48.4	48.4	48.4
	Old	338	51.6	51.6	100.0
	Total	655	100.0	100.0	

NPar Tests

Chi-Square Test

Frequencies

Age - Young and Old

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Young	111	128.7	-17.7
Old	155	137.3	17.7
Total	266		

Test Statistics

	Age - Young and Old
Chi-Square[a]	4.739
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.029

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 128.7.

Frequencies – Education (Yes Degree and No Degree)

Statistics

Education

N	Valid	655
	Missing	0

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes degree	337	51.5	51.5	51.5
	no degree	318	48.5	48.5	100.0
	Total	655	100.0	100.0	

NPar Tests

Chi-Square Test

Frequencies

Education

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
yes degree	118	137.0	-19.0
no degree	148	129.0	19.0
Total	266		

Test Statistics

	Education
Chi-Square[a]	5.428
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.020

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 129.0.

Frequencies – Gender (Male and Female)

Statistics

Gender

N	Valid	655
	Missing	0

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	255	38.9	38.9	38.9
	Female	400	61.1	61.1	100.0
	Total	655	100.0	100.0	

NPar Tests

Chi-Square Test

Frequencies

Gender

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Male	92	103.5	-11.5
Female	174	162.5	11.5
Total	266		

Test Statistics

	Gender
Chi-Square[a]	2.082
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.149

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 103.5.

Frequencies – Position (Management and Staff)

Statistics

Position - Management and Staff

N	Valid	655
	Missing	0

Position - Management and Staff

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Management	150	22.9	22.9	22.9
	Staff	505	77.1	77.1	100.0
	Total	655	100.0	100.0	

NPar Tests

Chi-Square Test

Frequencies

Position - Management and Staff

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Management	49	60.9	-11.9
Staff	217	205.1	11.9
Total	266		

Test Statistics

	Position - Management and Staff
Chi-Square[a]	3.022
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.082

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 60.9.

Frequencies – For Morale Data (Self and Others)

Statistics

		minimal work SELF	lateness SELF	absenteeism SELF	transfers within organisation SELF	exit organisation SELF	minimal work OTHERS	lateness OTHERS	absenteeism OTHERS	transfers within organisation OTHERS	exit organisation OTHERS
N	Valid	266	266	266	266	266	266	266	266	266	266
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.78	2.10	2.32	3.36	2.86	4.03	3.79	4.08	3.68	2.69
Std. Deviation		1.25	1.26	1.41	1.42	1.59	1.09	1.22	1.09	1.28	1.46
Skewness		.100	.842	.590	-.410	.145	-1.226	-.935	-1.116	-.642	.379
Std. Error of Skewness		.149	.149	.149	.149	.149	.149	.149	.149	.149	.149
Kurtosis		-1.076	-.569	-1.136	-1.128	-1.557	1.008	.086	.584	-.737	-1.233
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.298	.298	.298	.298	.298	.298	.298	.298	.298	.298

Frequency Table

minimal work SELF

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	51	19.2	19.2	19.2
	2	67	25.2	25.2	44.4
	3	61	22.9	22.9	67.3
	4	64	24.1	24.1	91.4
	5	23	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

lateness SELF

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	122	45.9	45.9	45.9
	2	61	22.9	22.9	68.8
	3	31	11.7	11.7	80.5
	4	39	14.7	14.7	95.1
	5	13	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

absenteeism SELF

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	115	43.2	43.2	43.2
	2	50	18.8	18.8	62.0
	3	26	9.8	9.8	71.8
	4	52	19.5	19.5	91.4
	5	23	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

transfers within organisation SELF

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	43	16.2	16.2	16.2
	2	33	12.4	12.4	28.6
	3	49	18.4	18.4	47.0
	4	68	25.6	25.6	72.6
	5	73	27.4	27.4	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

exit organisation SELF

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	82	30.8	30.8	30.8
	2	45	16.9	16.9	47.7
	3	34	12.8	12.8	60.5
	4	38	14.3	14.3	74.8
	5	67	25.2	25.2	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

minimal work OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	13	4.9	4.9	4.9
	2	14	5.3	5.3	10.2
	3	33	12.4	12.4	22.6
	4	99	37.2	37.2	59.8
	5	107	40.2	40.2	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

lateness OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	24	9.0	9.0	9.0
	2	11	4.1	4.1	13.2
	3	54	20.3	20.3	33.5
	4	86	32.3	32.3	65.8
	5	91	34.2	34.2	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

absenteeism OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	3.8	3.8	3.8
	2	14	5.3	5.3	9.0
	3	45	16.9	16.9	25.9
	4	73	27.4	27.4	53.4
	5	124	46.6	46.6	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

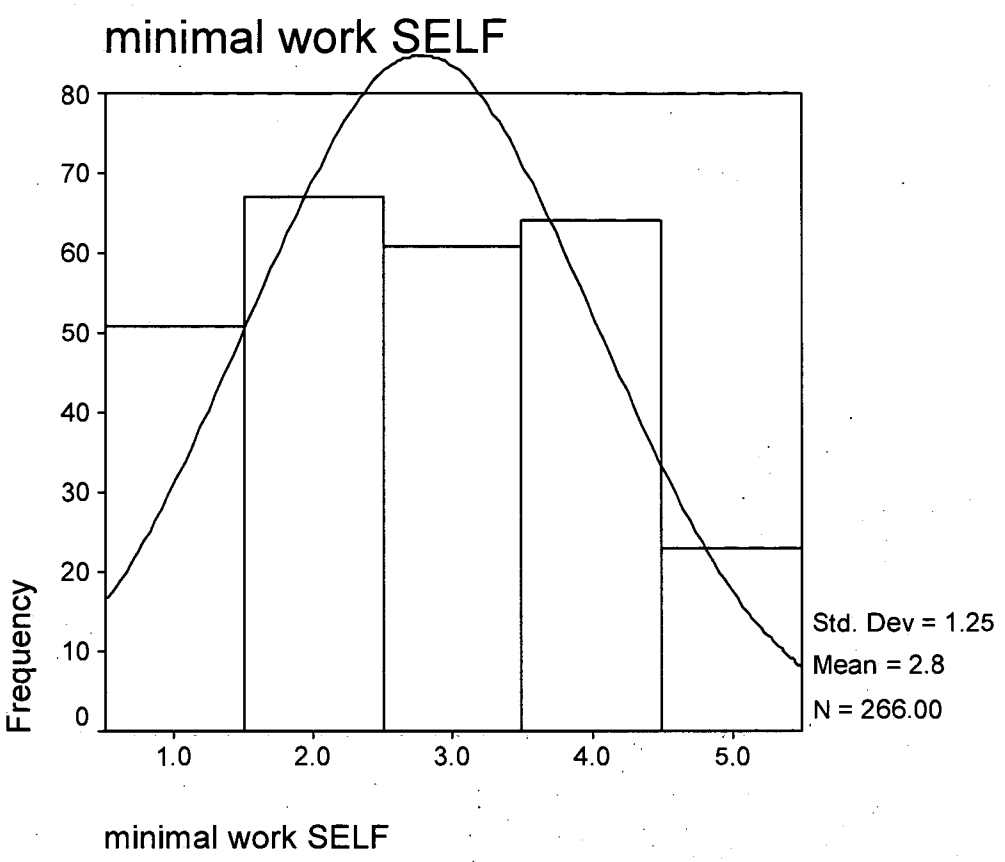
transfers within organisation OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	19	7.1	7.1	7.1
	2	38	14.3	14.3	21.4
	3	43	16.2	16.2	37.6
	4	74	27.8	27.8	65.4
	5	92	34.6	34.6	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

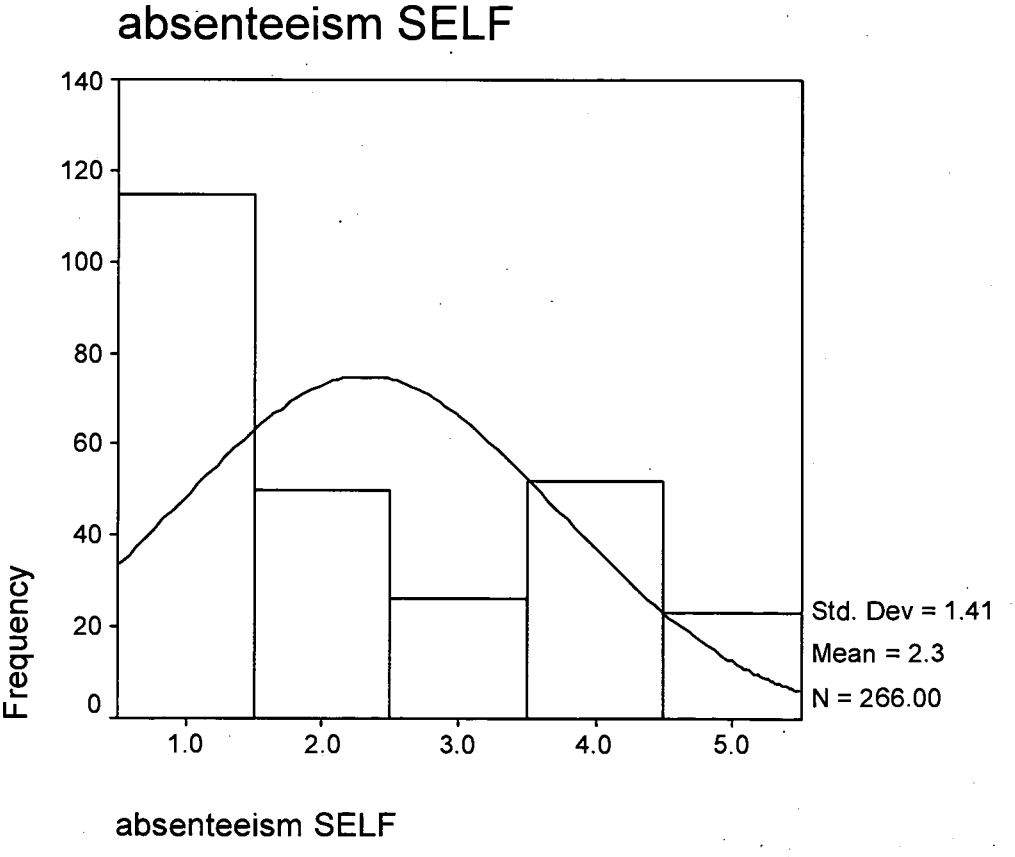
exit organisation OTHERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	74	27.8	27.8	27.8
	2	66	24.8	24.8	52.6
	3	45	16.9	16.9	69.5
	4	31	11.7	11.7	81.2
	5	50	18.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	266	100.0	100.0	

Histogram


minimal work SELF
80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Frequency
1.0
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
minimal work SELF
Std. Dev = 1.25
Mean = 2.8
N = 266.00


lateness SELF
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
1.0
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.26
Mean = 2.1
N = 266.00
lateness SELF


absenteeism SELF
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
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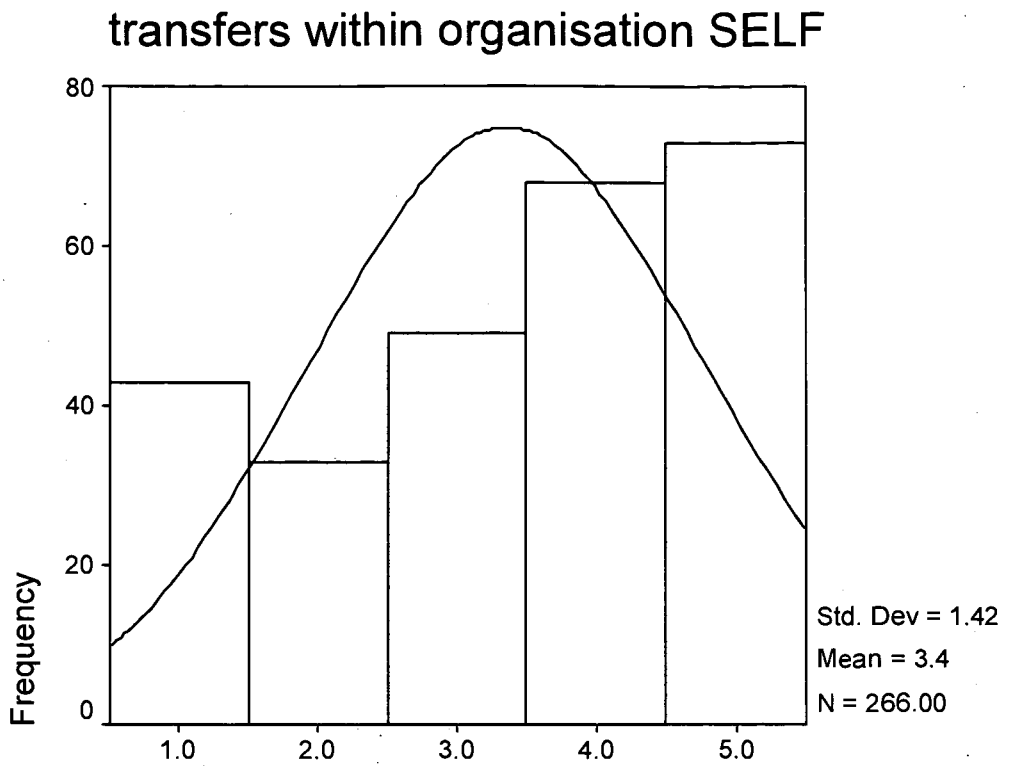
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.41
Mean = 2.3
N = 266.00
absenteeism SELF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80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
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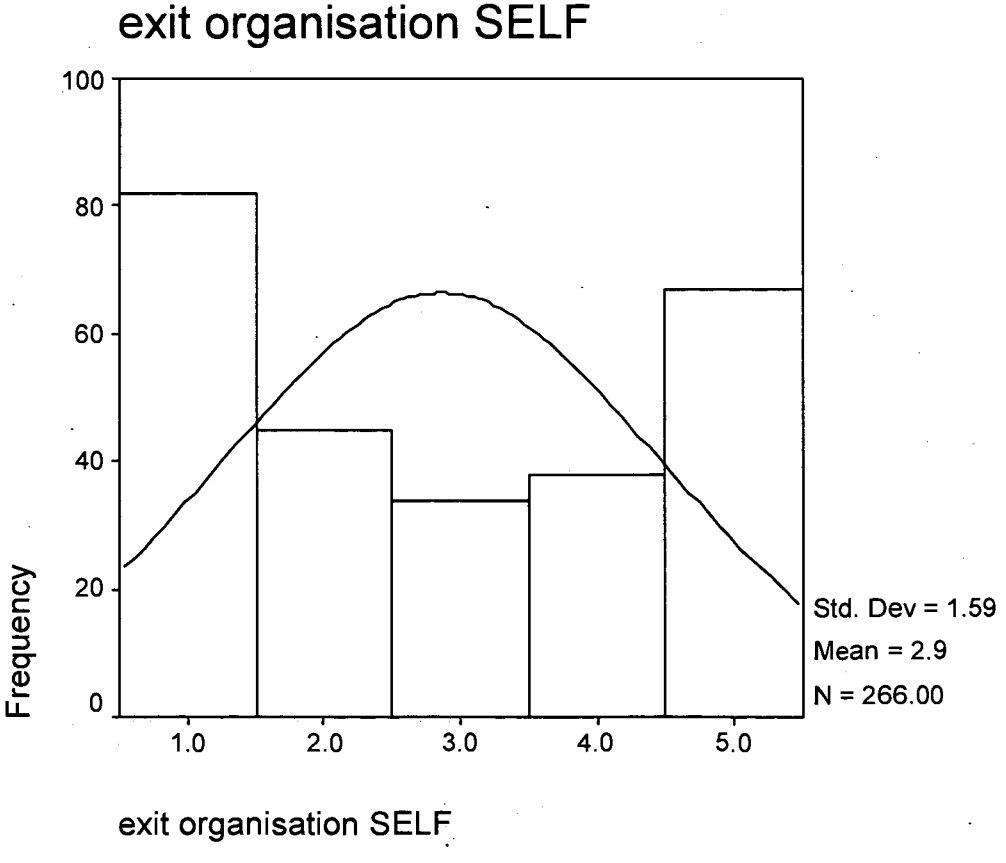
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.42
Mean = 3.4
N = 266.00
transfers within organisation SELF


exit organisation SELF
100
80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
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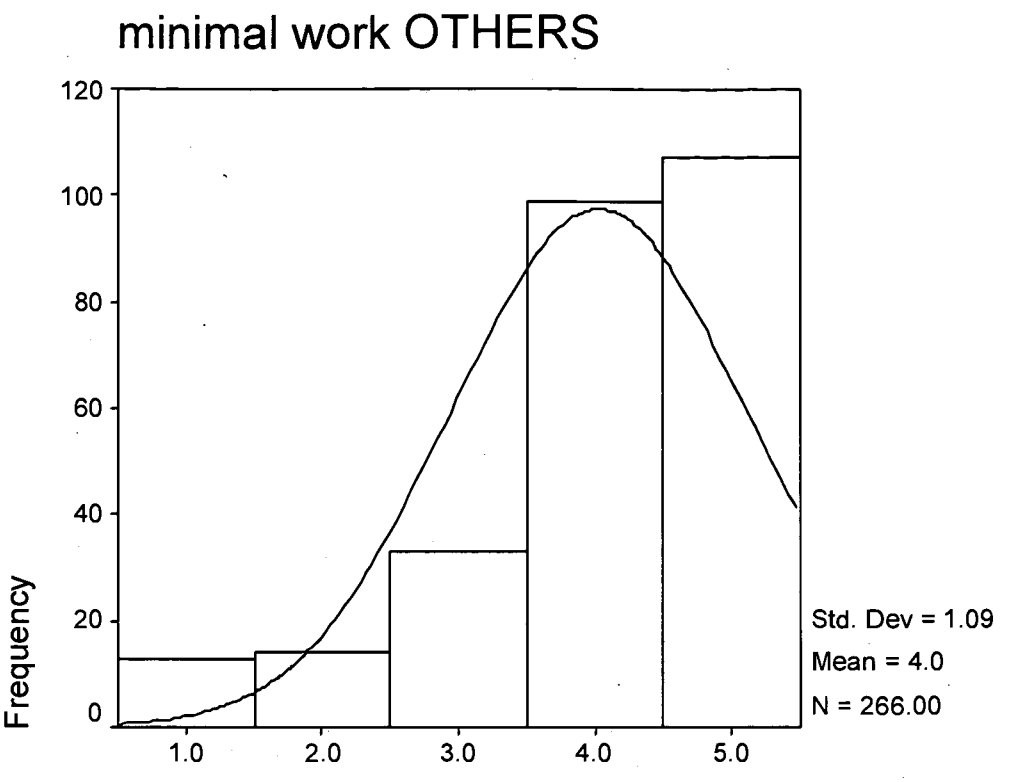
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.59
Mean = 2.9
N = 266.00
exit organisation SELF


minimal work OTHERS
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
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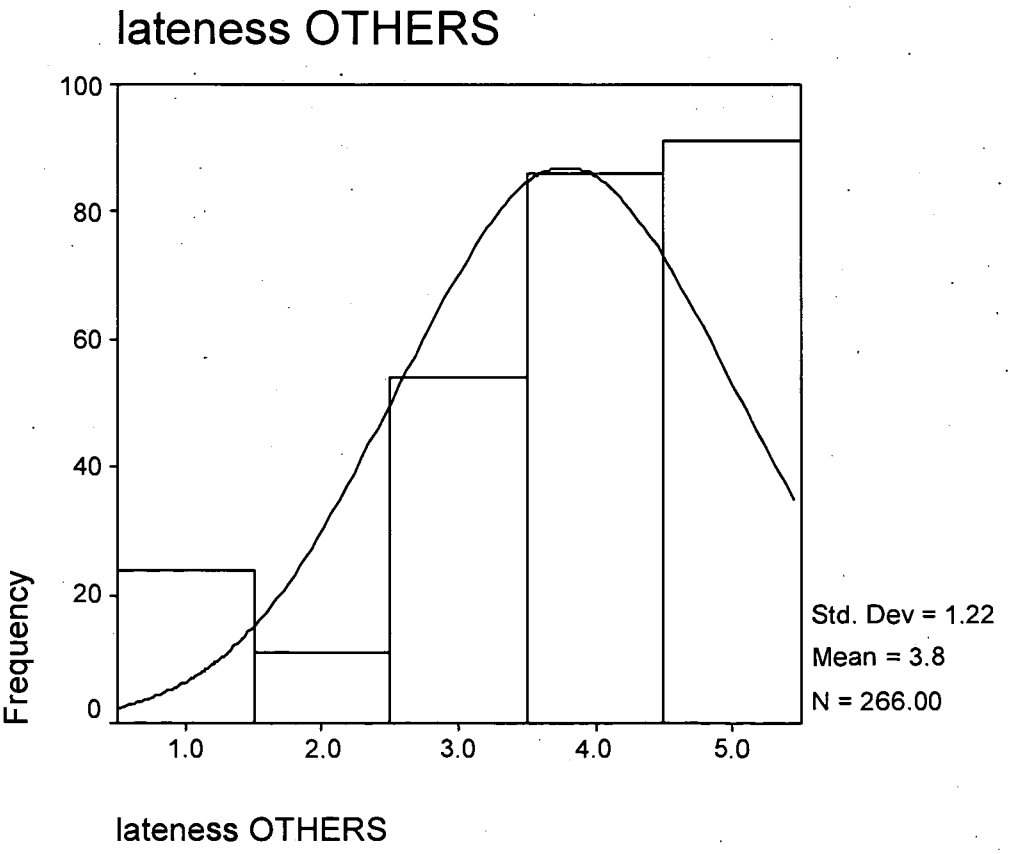
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.09
Mean = 4.0
N = 266.00
minimal work OTHERS


lateness OTHERS
100
80
60
40
20
0
Frequency
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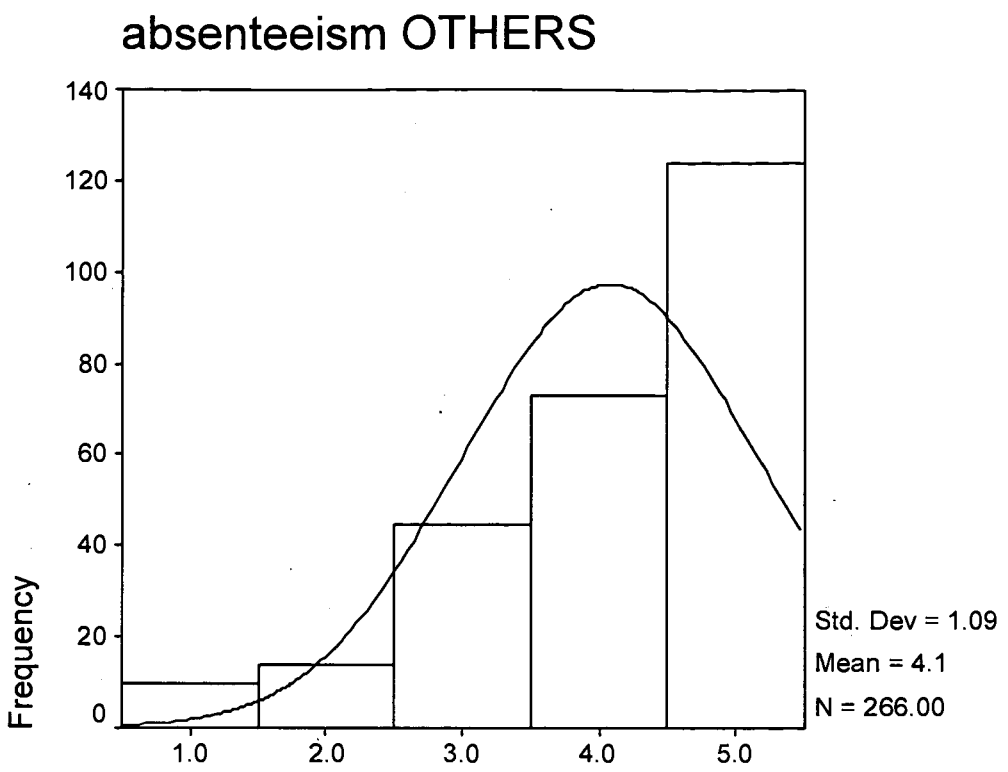
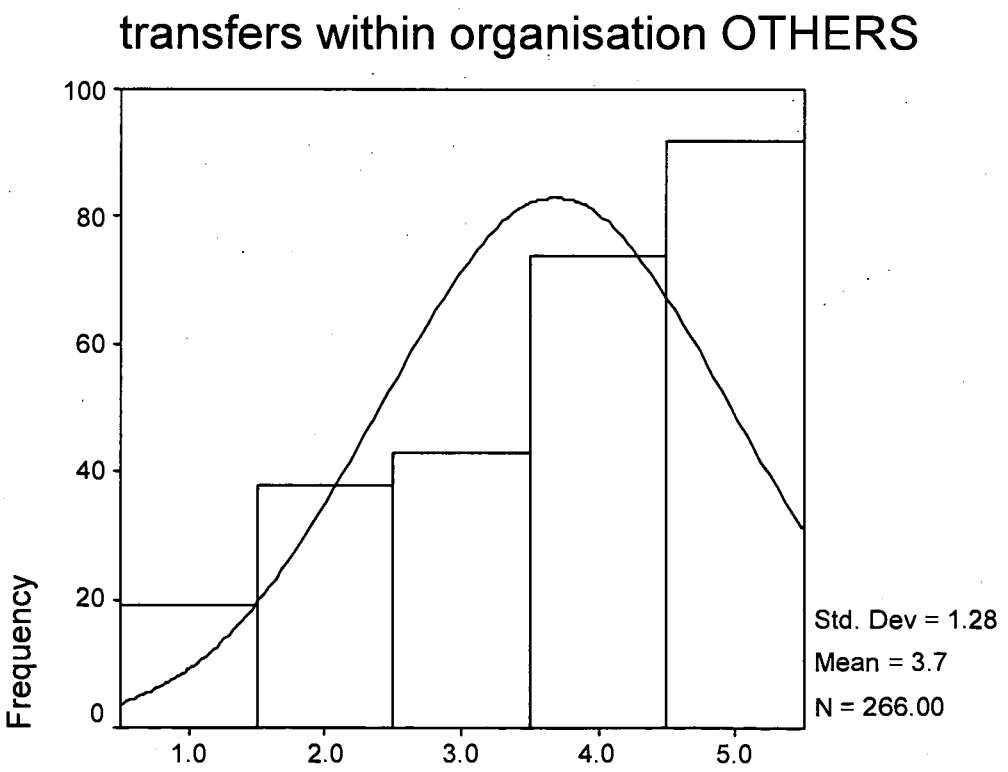
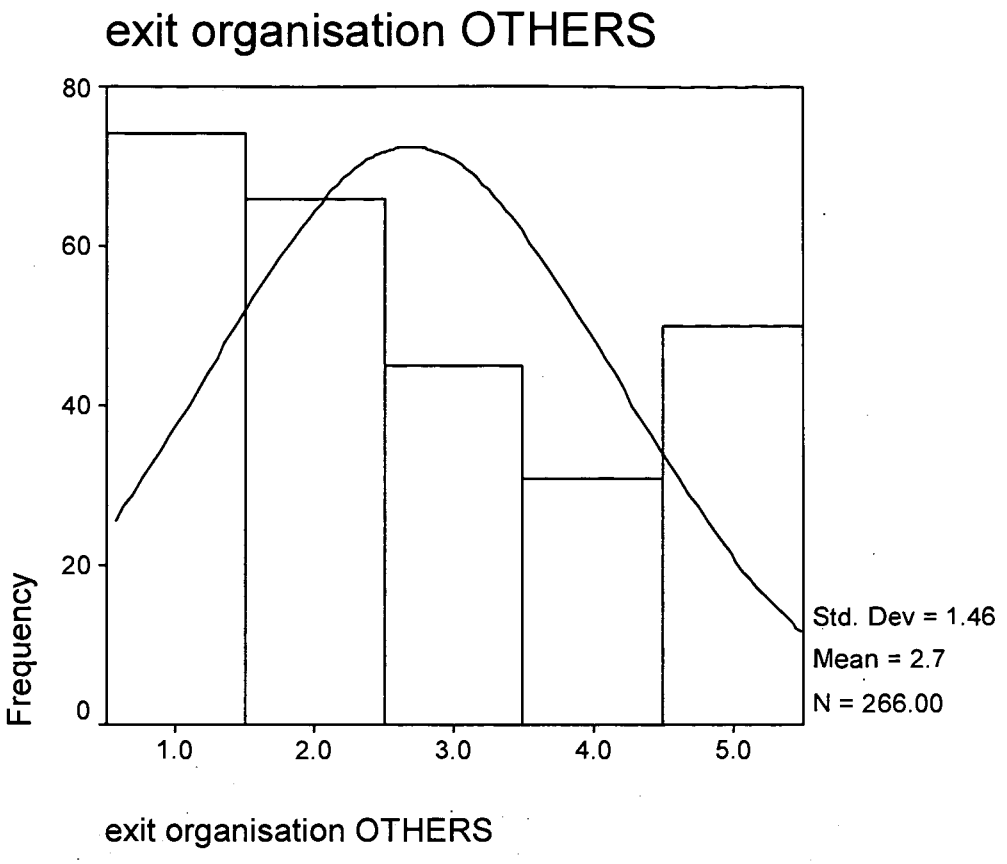
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.22
Mean = 3.8
N = 266.00
lateness OTHERS


absenteeism OTHERS
Frequency
140
120
100
80
60
40
20
0
1.0
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.09
Mean = 4.1
N = 266.00
absenteeism OTHERS


transfers within organisation OTHERS
Frequency
100
80
60
40
20
0
1.0
2.0
3.0
4.0
5.0
Std. Dev = 1.28
Mean = 3.7
N = 266.00
transfers within organisation OTHERS



Explore

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
minimal work SELF	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
lateness SELF	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
absenteeism SELF	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
transfers within organisation SELF	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
exit organisation SELF	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
minimal work OTHERS	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
lateness OTHERS	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
absenteeism OTHERS	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
transfers within organisation OTHERS	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%
exit organisation OTHERS	266	100.0%	0	.0%	266	100.0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
minimal work SELF	Mean		2.78	7.66E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.63	
		Upper Bound	2.93	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.75	
	Median		3.00	
	Variance		1.562	
	Std. Deviation		1.25	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		.100	.149
	Kurtosis		-1.076	.298
lateness SELF	Mean		2.10	7.75E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	1.95	
		Upper Bound	2.25	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.00	
	Median		2.00	
	Variance		1.598	
	Std. Deviation		1.26	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		.842	.149
	Kurtosis		-.569	.298
absenteeism SELF	Mean		2.32	8.67E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.15	
		Upper Bound	2.49	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.24	
	Median		2.00	
	Variance		1.998	
	Std. Deviation		1.41	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		3.00	
	Skewness		.590	.149
	Kurtosis		-1.136	.298
transfers within organisation SELF	Mean		3.36	8.68E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.19	
		Upper Bound	3.53	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.40	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		2.004	
	Std. Deviation		1.42	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		3.00	
	Skewness		-.410	.149
	Kurtosis		-1.128	.298
exit organisation SELF	Mean		2.86	9.78E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.67	
		Upper Bound	3.05	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.85	

	Median		3.00	
	Variance		2.543	
	Std. Deviation		1.59	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		4.00	
	Skewness		.145	.149
	Kurtosis		-1.557	.298
minimal work OTHERS	Mean		4.03	6.66E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.90	
		Upper Bound	4.16	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.14	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.180	
	Std. Deviation		1.09	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		1.00	
	Skewness		-1.226	.149
	Kurtosis		1.008	.298
lateness OTHERS	Mean		3.79	7.46E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.64	
		Upper Bound	3.93	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.87	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.482	
	Std. Deviation		1.22	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-.935	.149
	Kurtosis		.086	.298
absenteeism OTHERS	Mean		4.08	6.67E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.95	
		Upper Bound	4.21	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.19	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.182	
	Std. Deviation		1.09	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-1.116	.149
	Kurtosis		.584	.298
transfers within organisation OTHERS	Mean		3.68	7.82E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.53	
		Upper Bound	3.84	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.76	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.628	
	Std. Deviation		1.28	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	

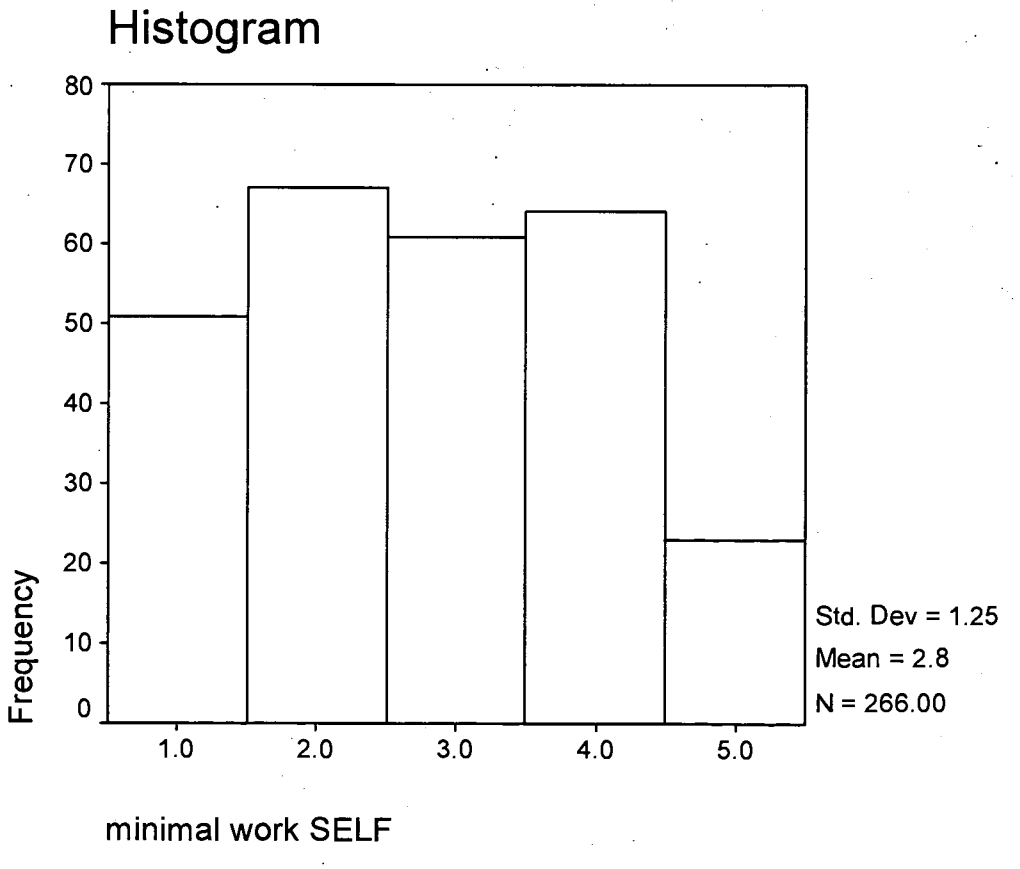
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		2.00	
	Skewness		-.642	.149
	Kurtosis		-.737	.298
exit organisation OTHERS	Mean		2.69	8.97E-02
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.51	
		Upper Bound	2.86	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2.65	
	Median		2.00	
	Variance		2.140	
	Std. Deviation		1.46	
	Minimum		1	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		4	
	Interquartile Range		3.00	
	Skewness		.379	.149
	Kurtosis		-1.233	.298

Tests of Normality

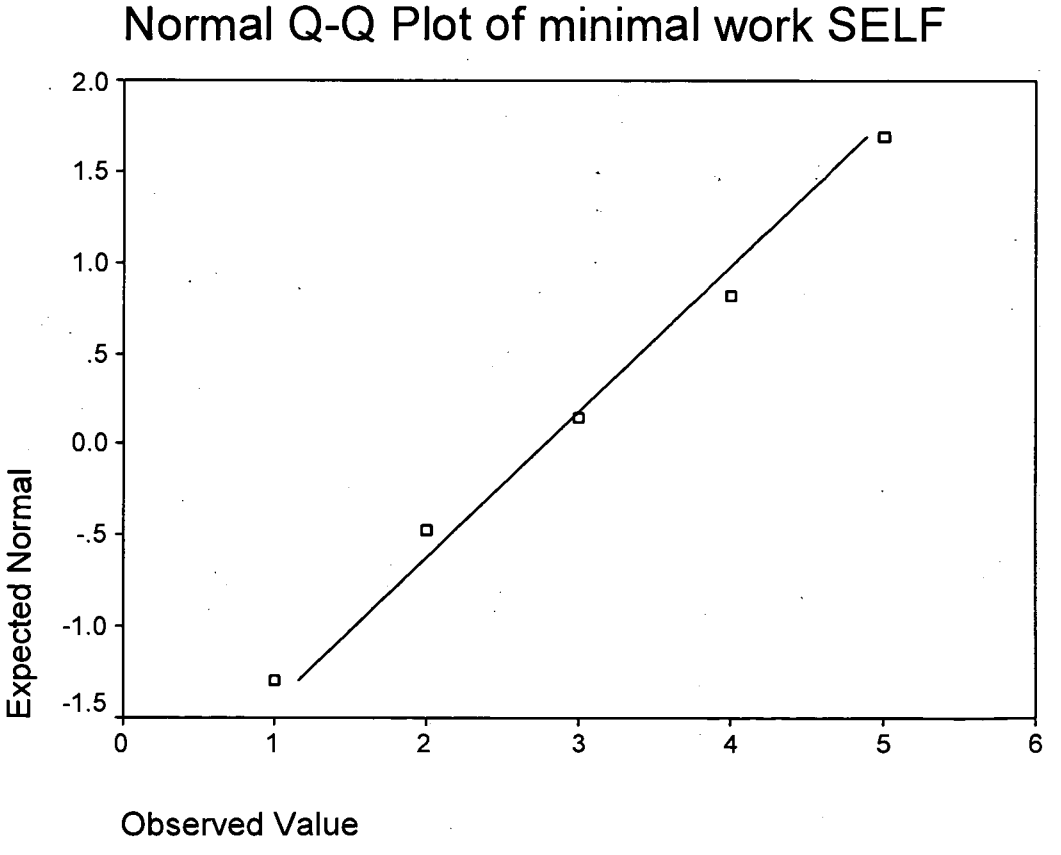
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
minimal work SELF	.177	266	.000
lateness SELF	.266	266	.000
absenteeism SELF	.256	266	.000
transfers within organisation SELF	.205	266	.000
exit organisation SELF	.187	266	.000
minimal work OTHERS	.265	266	.000
lateness OTHERS	.235	266	.000
absenteeism OTHERS	.268	266	.000
transfers within organisation OTHERS	.222	266	.000
exit organisation OTHERS	.207	266	.000

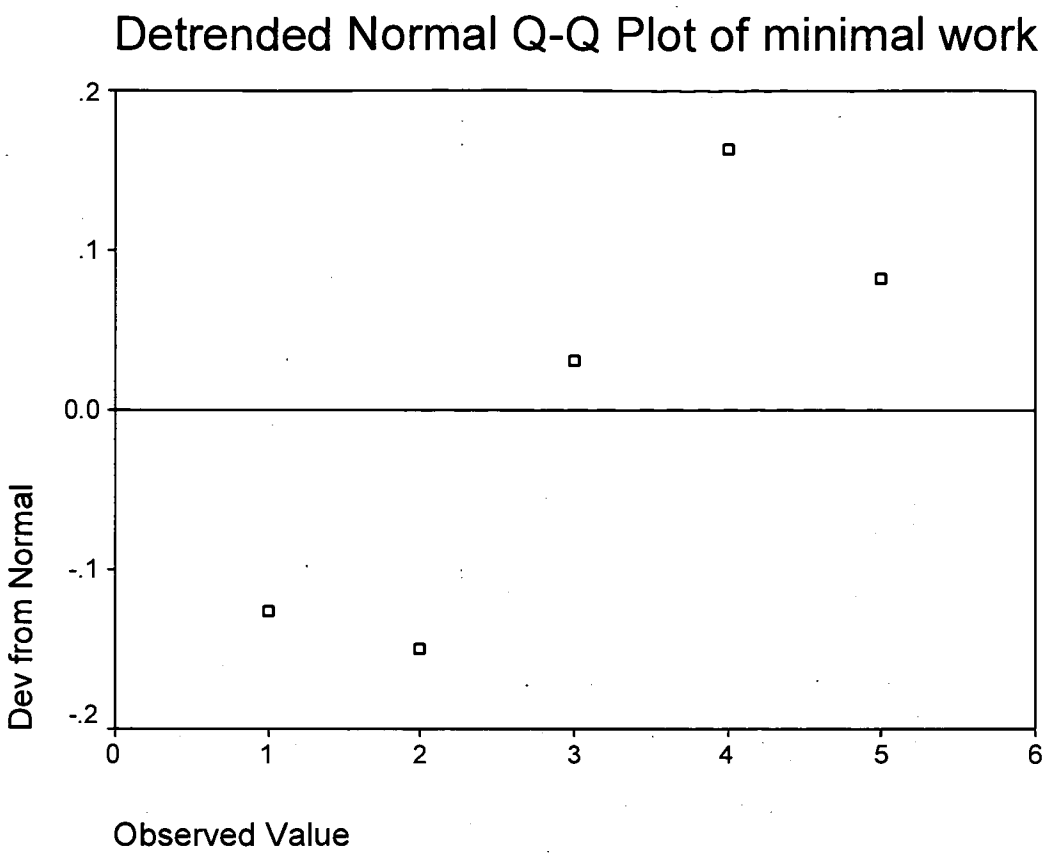
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

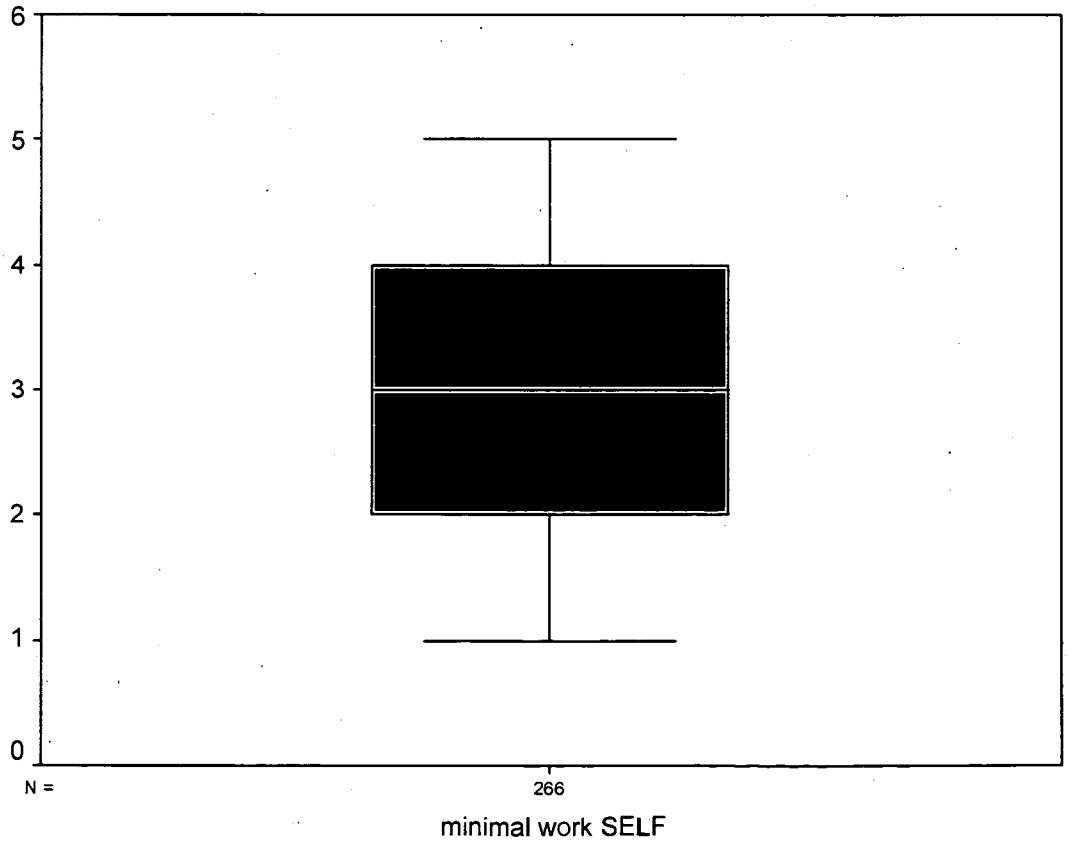
Minimal work (SELF)



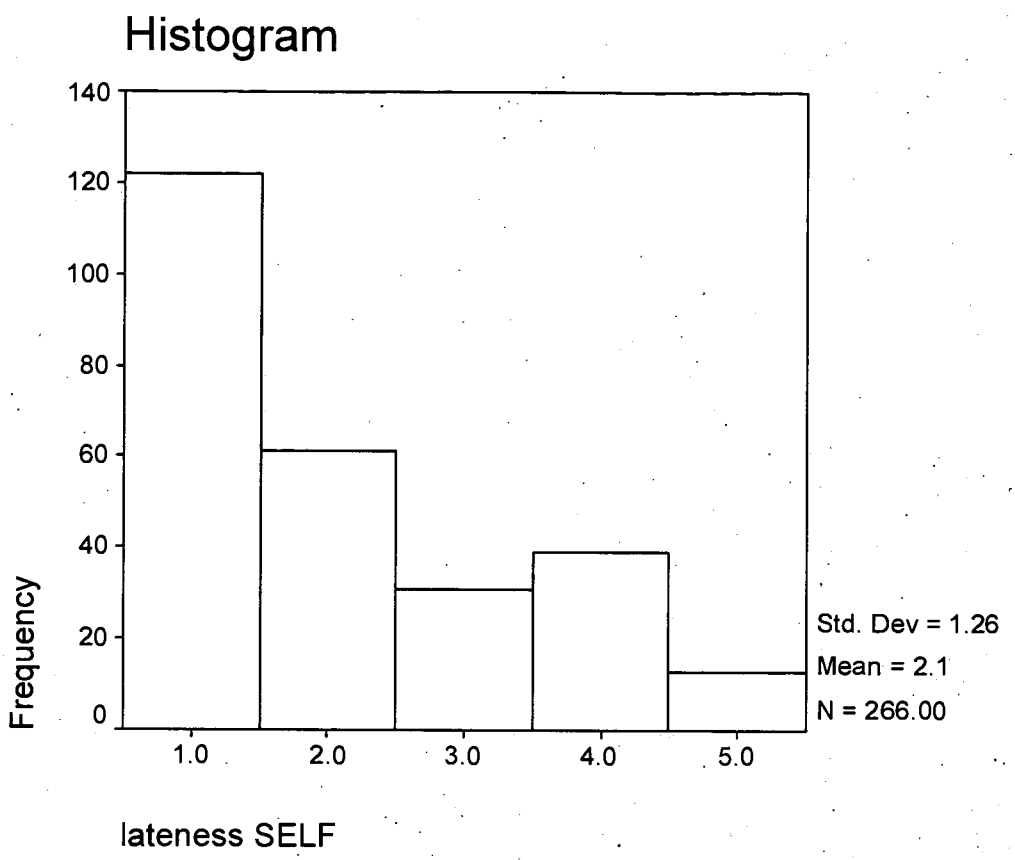
```
minimal work SELF Stem-and-Leaf Plot

 Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

    51.00        1 .  000000000000000000000000
      .00        1 .
    67.00        2 .  0000000000000000000000000000000000
      .00        2 .
    61.00        3 .  00000000000000000000000000000
      .00        3 .
    64.00        4 .  0000000000000000000000000000000
      .00        4 .
    23.00        5 .  00000000000

 Stem width:          1
 Each leaf:       2 case(s)
```




Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of minimal work S
.2
.1
0.0
-.1
-.2
Dev from Normal
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
minimal work SELF

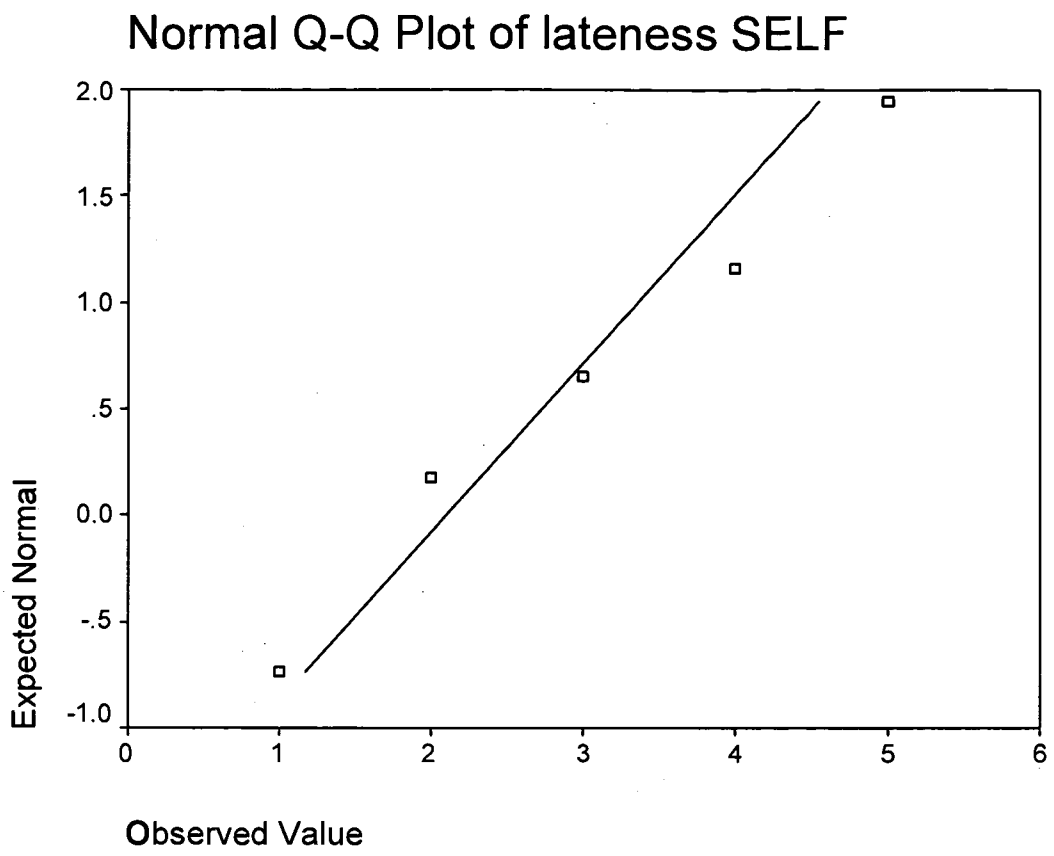
Lateness (SELF)

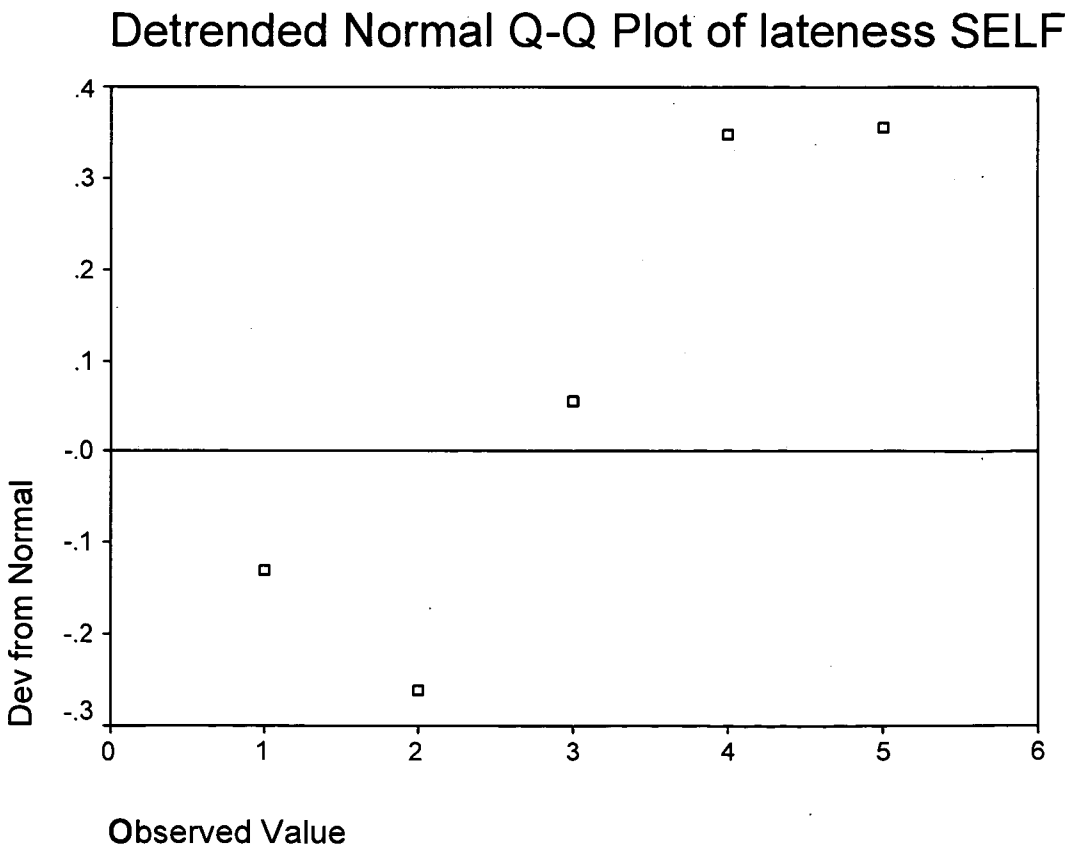


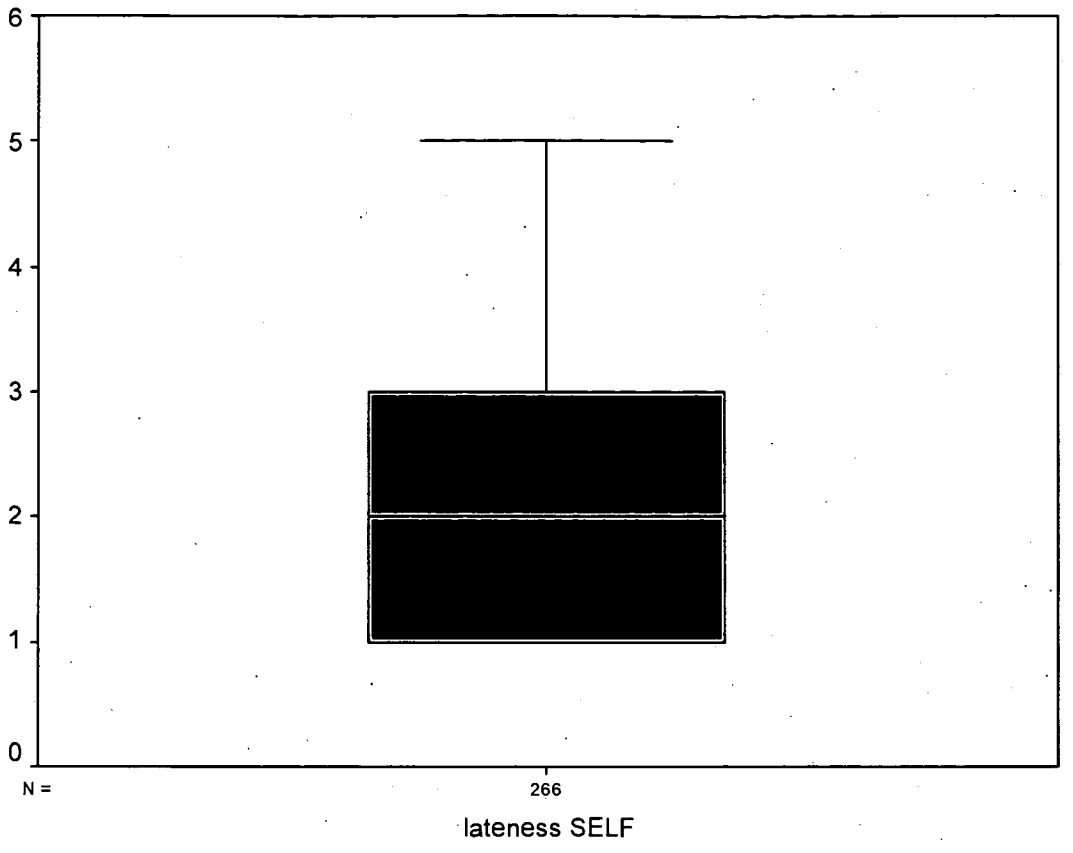
lateness SELF Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
122.00	1 .	00000000000000000000000000000000000000000000
.00	1 .	
61.00	2 .	0000000000000000000
.00	2 .	
31.00	3 .	0000000000
.00	3 .	
39.00	4 .	0000000000000
.00	4 .	
13.00	5 .	0000

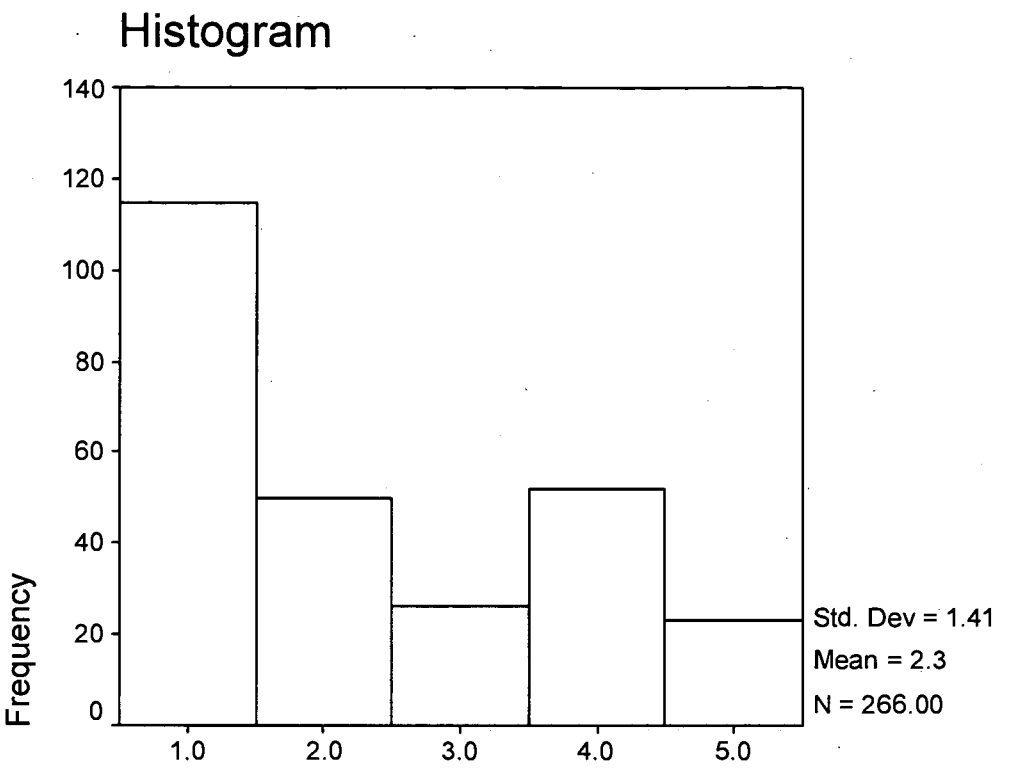
Stem width: 1
Each leaf: 3 case(s)


Normal Q-Q Plot of lateness SELF
Expected Normal
2.0
1.5
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of lateness SELF
Dev from Normal
.4
.3
.2
.1
-.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
lateness SELF

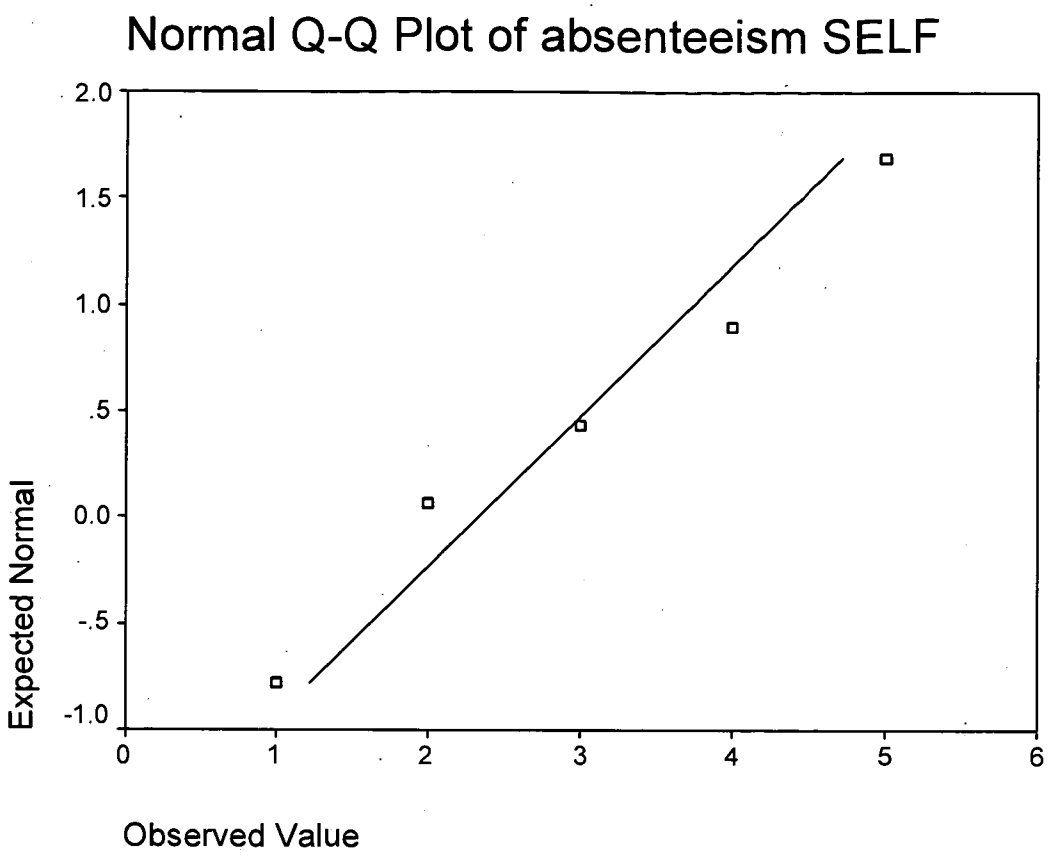
Absenteeism (SELF)

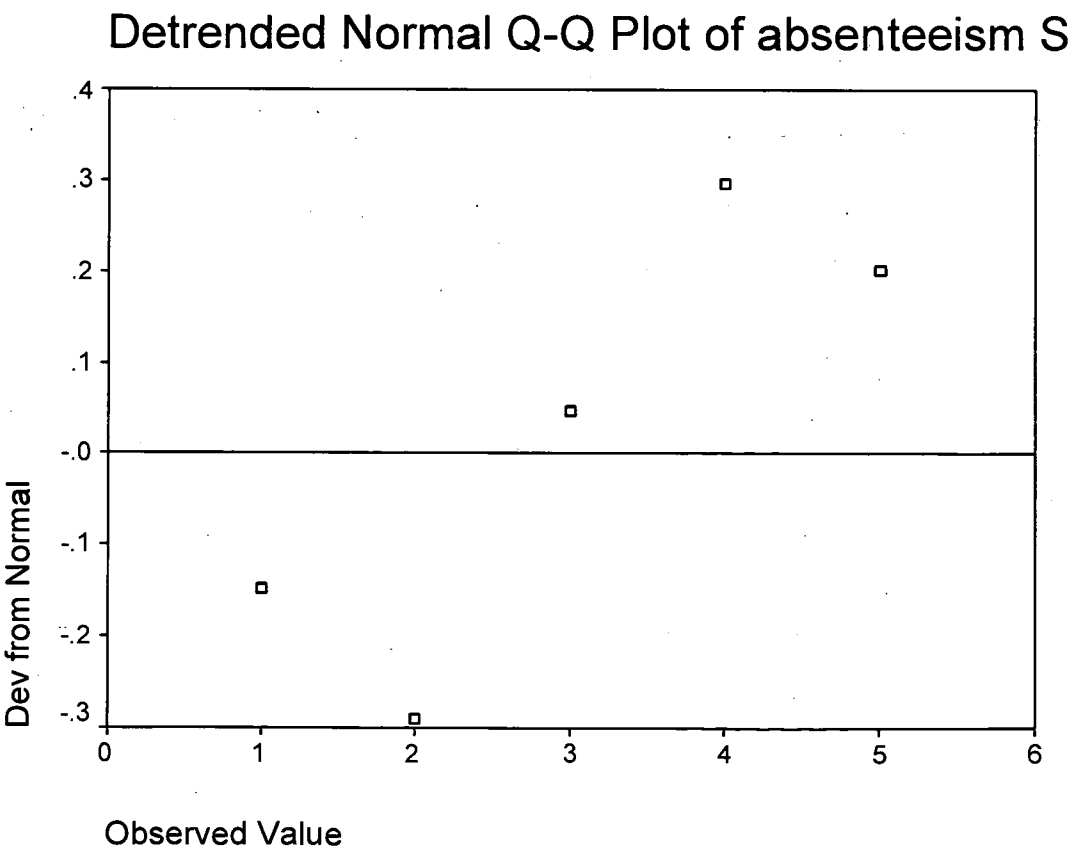


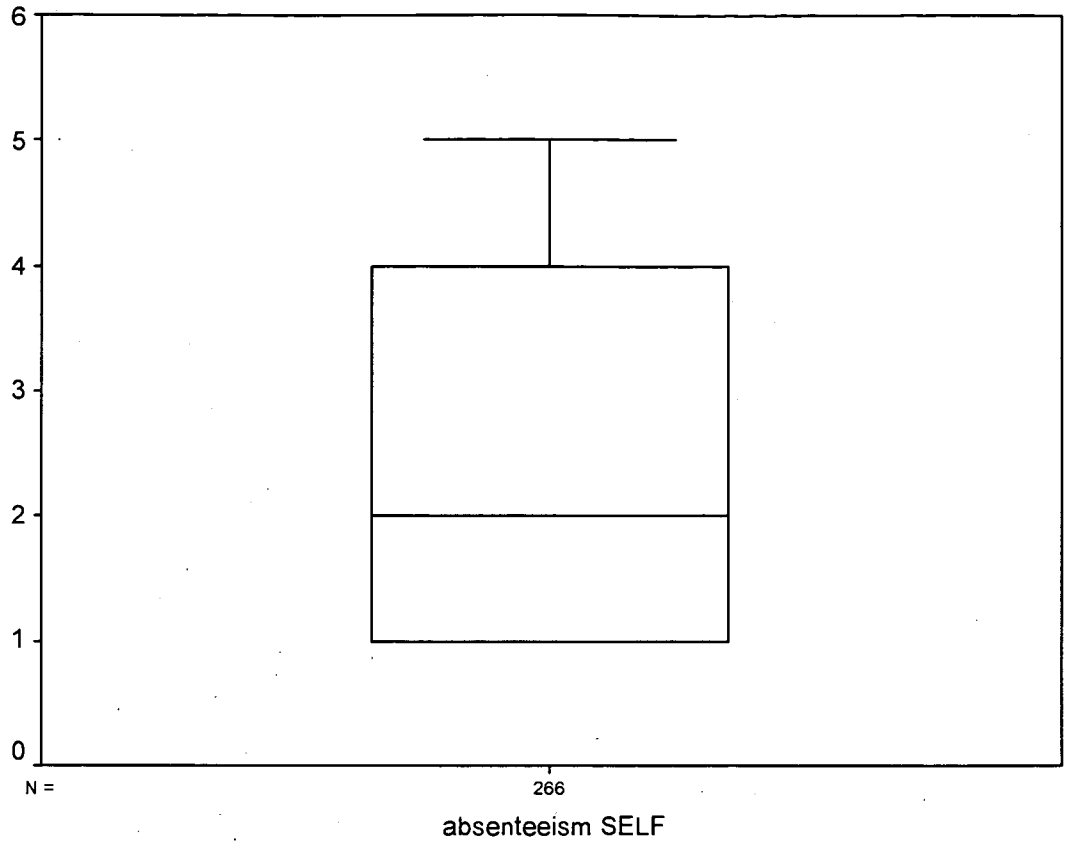
absenteeism SELF Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
115.00	1 .	00000000000000000000000000000000000000000
.00	1 .	
50.00	2 .	00000000000000000
.00	2 .	
26.00	3 .	000000000
.00	3 .	
52.00	4 .	00000000000000000
.00	4 .	
23.00	5 .	00000000

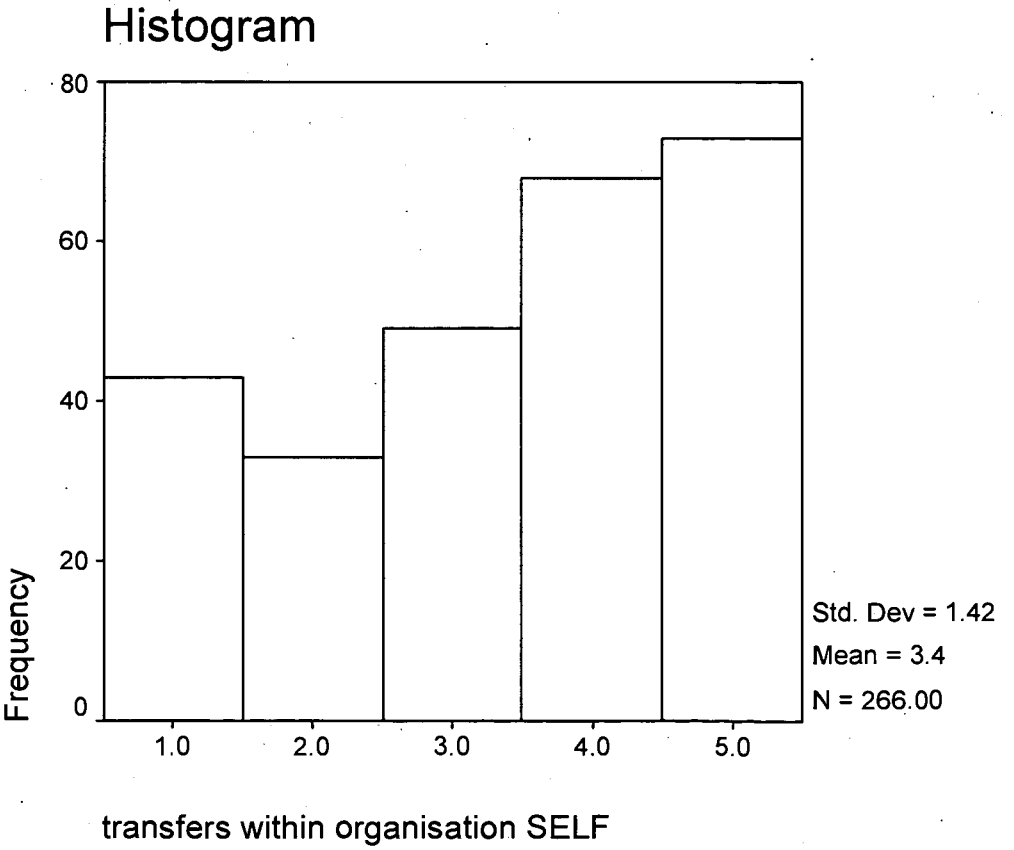
Stem width: 1
Each leaf: 3 case(s)


Normal Q-Q Plot of absenteeism SELF
Expected Normal
2.0
1.5
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of absenteeism SE
Dev from Normal
.4
.3
.2
.1
-.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value

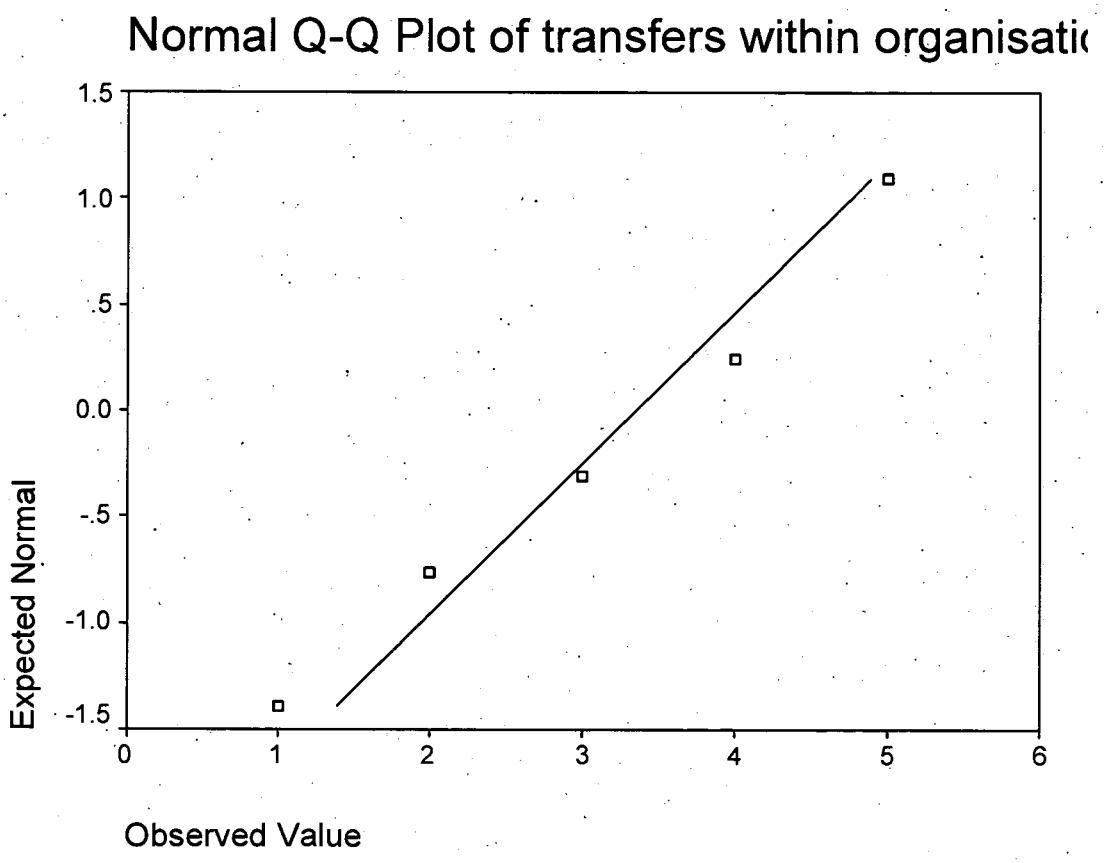


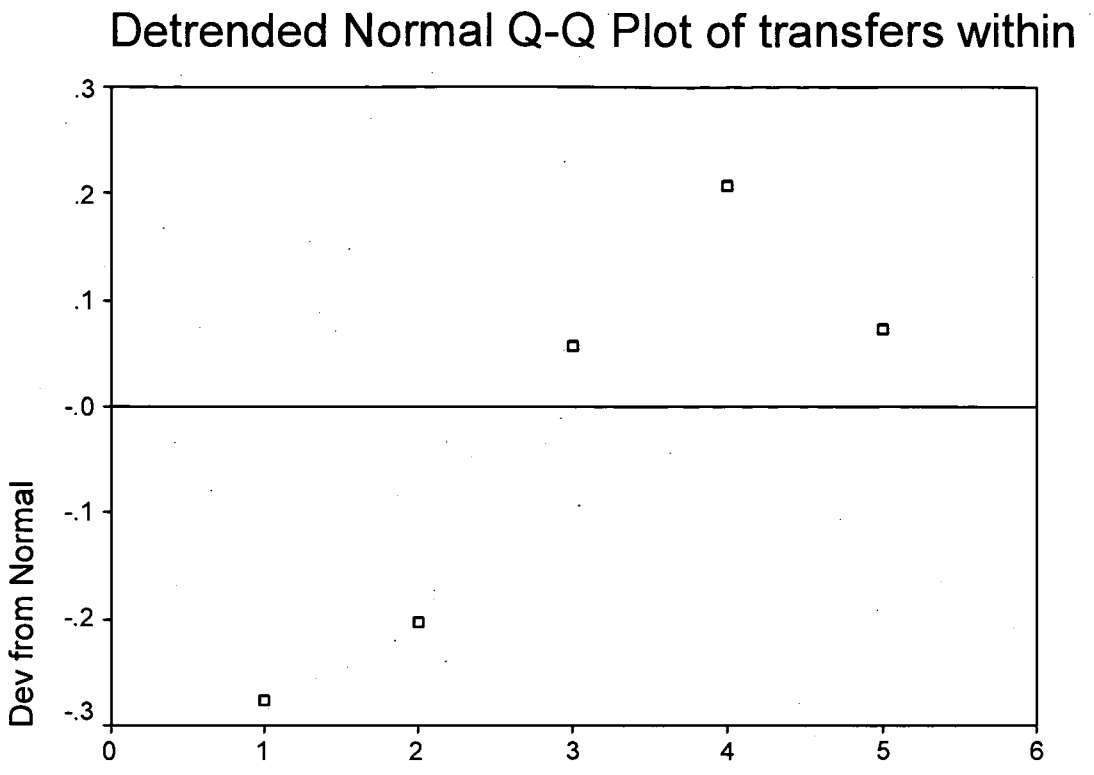
Transfers within organisation (SELF)

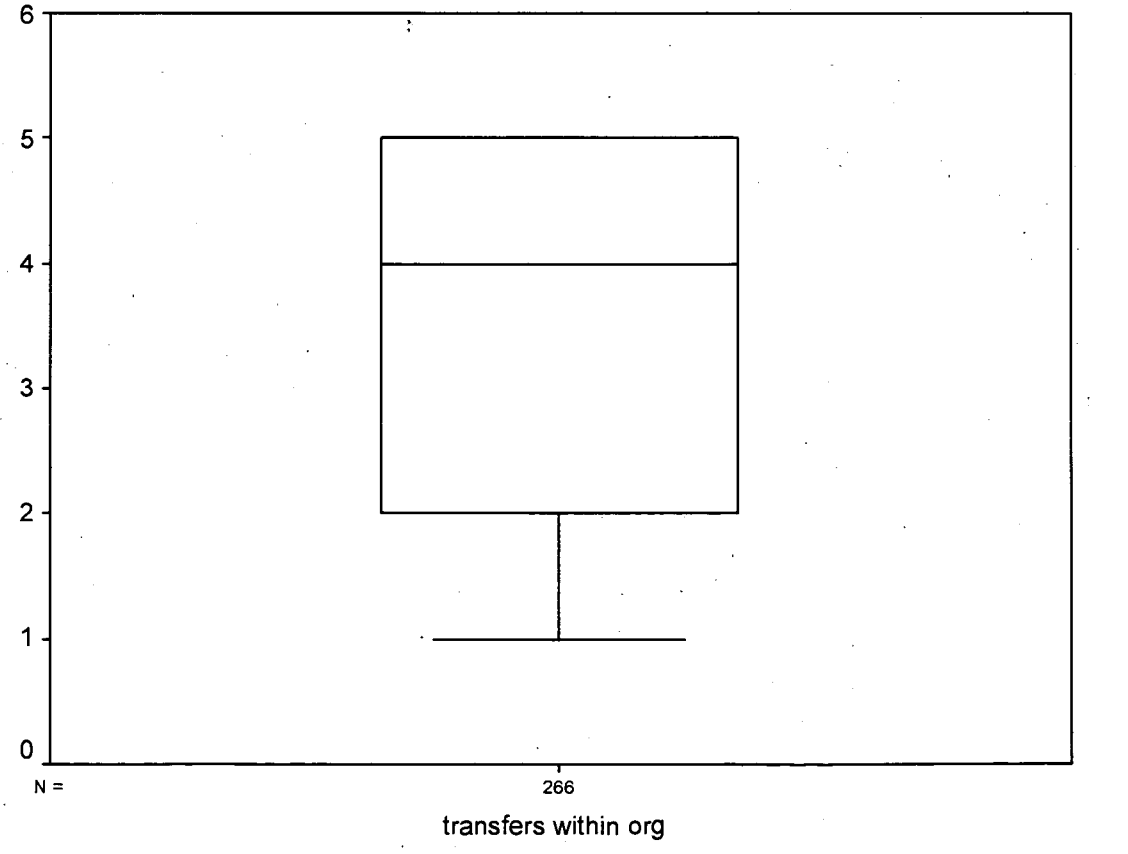


transfers within organisation SELF Stem-and-Leaf Plot

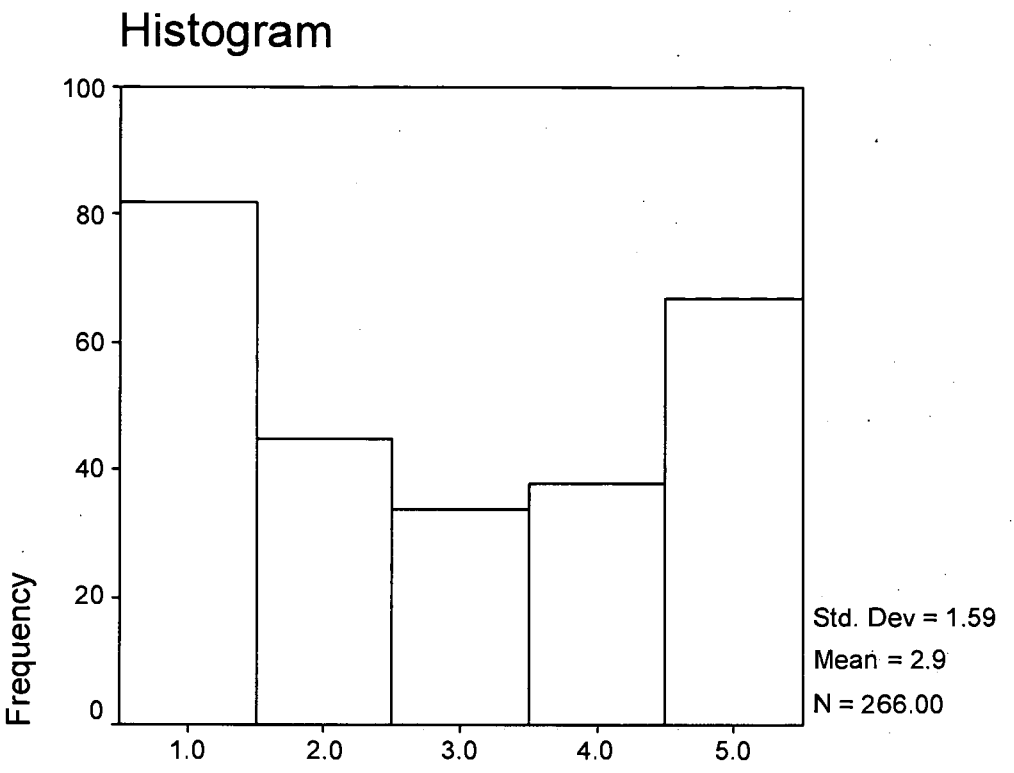
```
Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

   43.00        1 .  0000000000000000000
     .00        1 .
   33.00        2 .  000000000000000
     .00        2 .
   49.00        3 .  0000000000000000000000000
     .00        3 .
   68.00        4 .  00000000000000000000000000000000000
     .00        4 .
   73.00        5 .  000000000000000000000000000000000000

Stem width:          1
Each leaf:       2 case(s)
```




Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of transfers within
Dev from Normal
.3
.2
.1
-.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
transfers within org

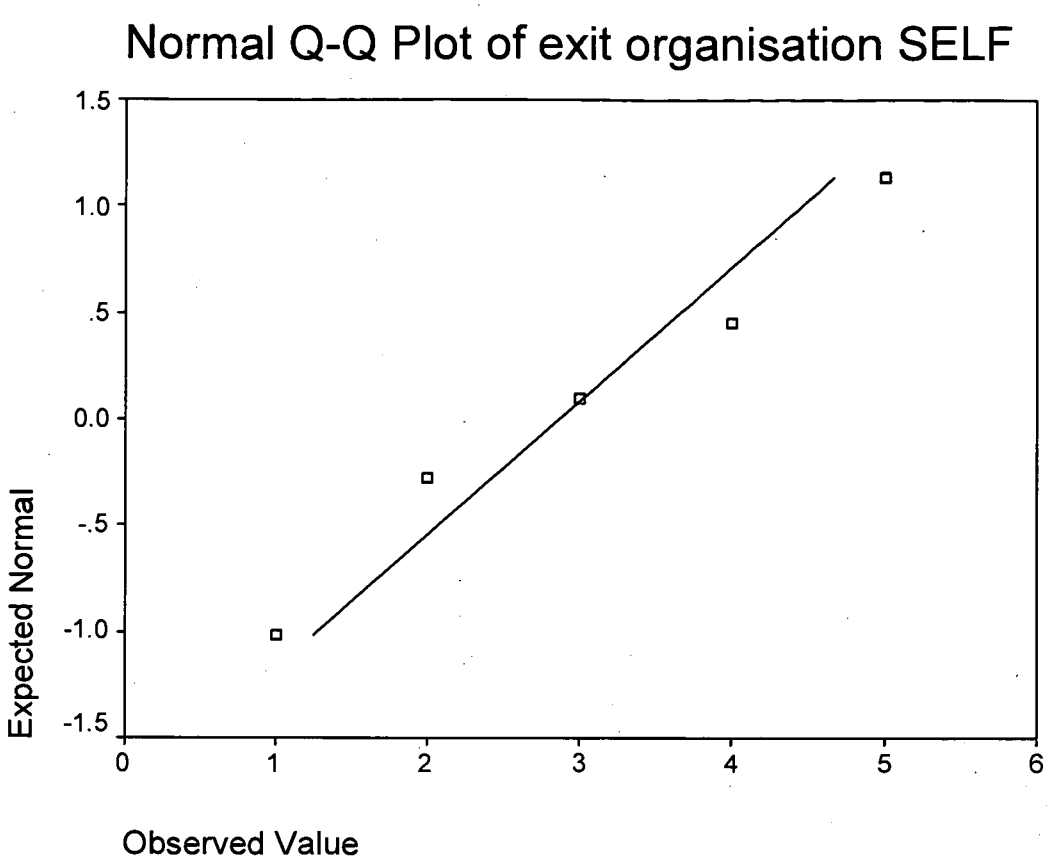
Exit organisation (SELF)

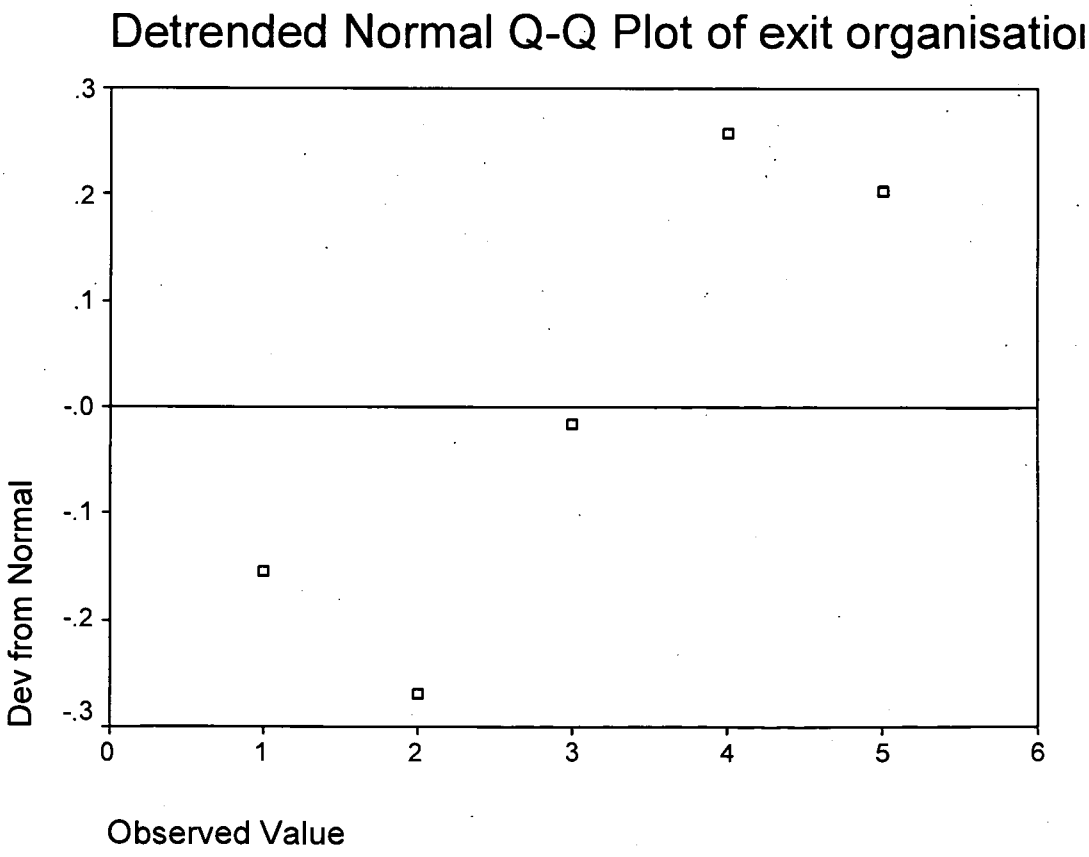


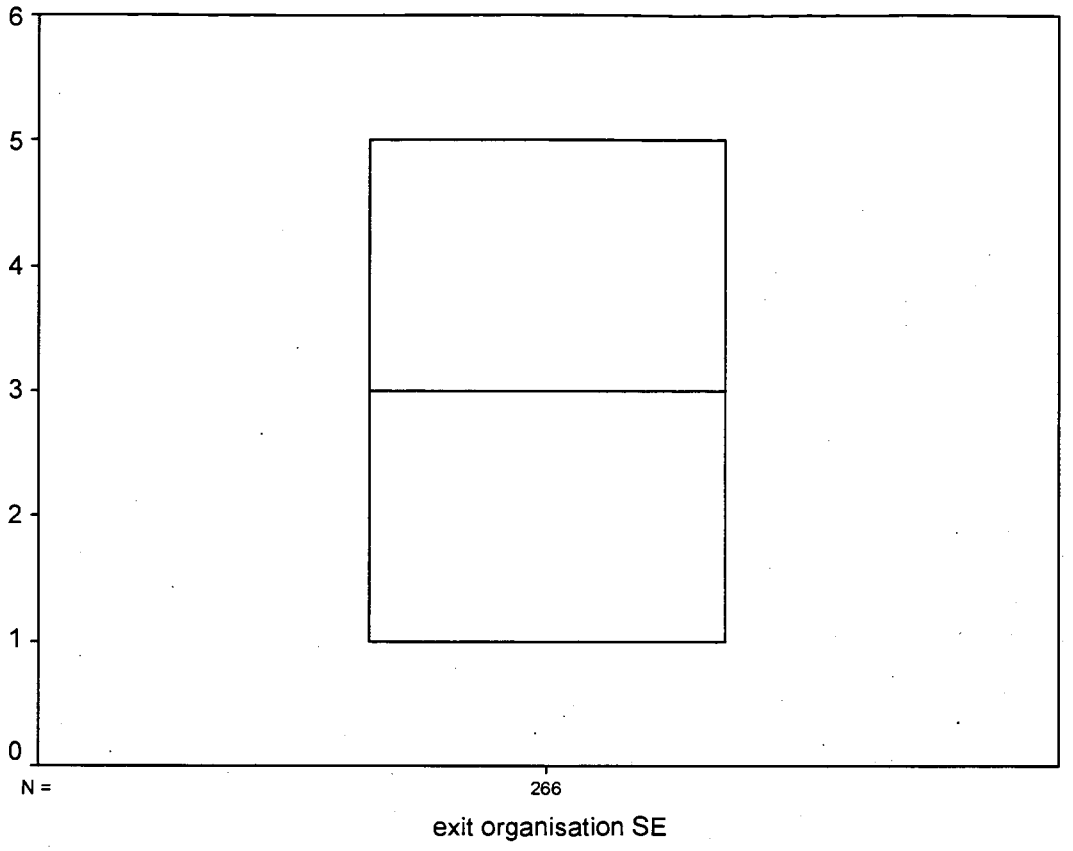
exit organisation SELF

exit organisation SELF Stem-and-Leaf Plot

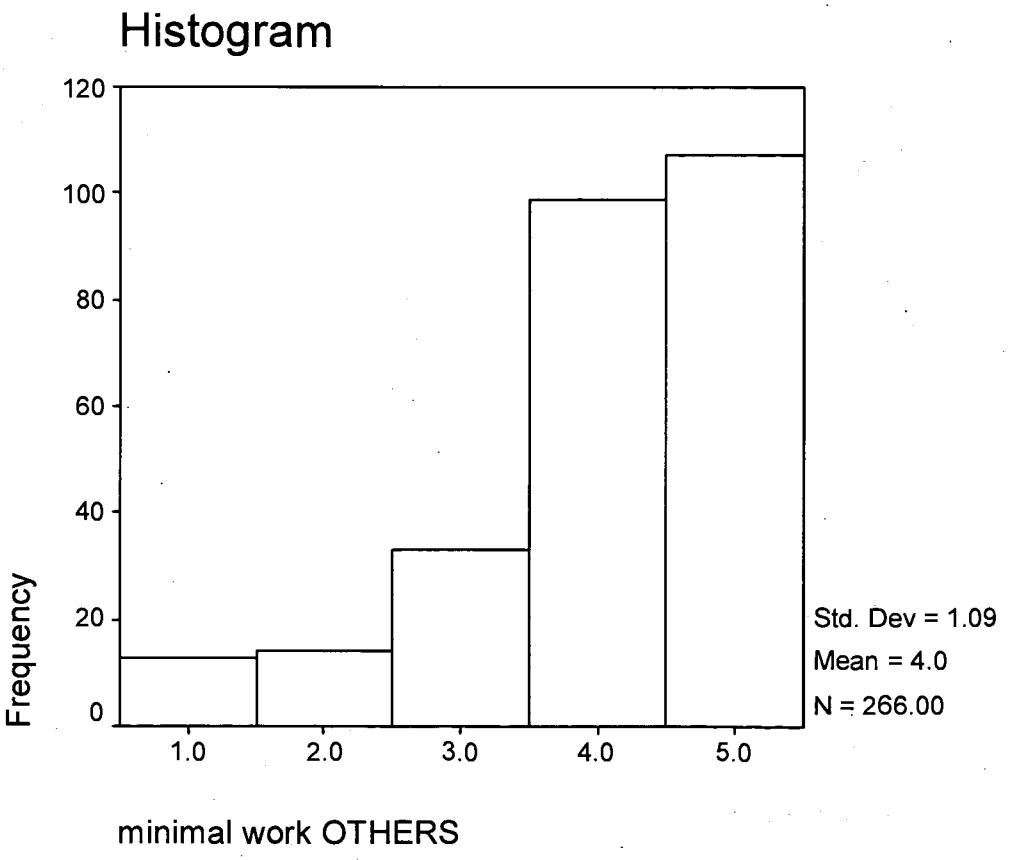
```
 Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

    82.00        1 .  0000000000000000000000000000000000000000
      .00        1 .
    45.00        2 .  000000000000000000000
      .00        2 .
    34.00        3 .  00000000000000000
      .00        3 .
    38.00        4 .  0000000000000000000
      .00        4 .
    67.00        5 .  00000000000000000000000000000000

 Stem width:          1
 Each leaf:       2 case(s)
```


Normal Q-Q Plot of exit organisation SELF
Expected Normal
1.5
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
-1.5
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of exit organisatio
Dev from Normal
.3
.2
.1
-.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value

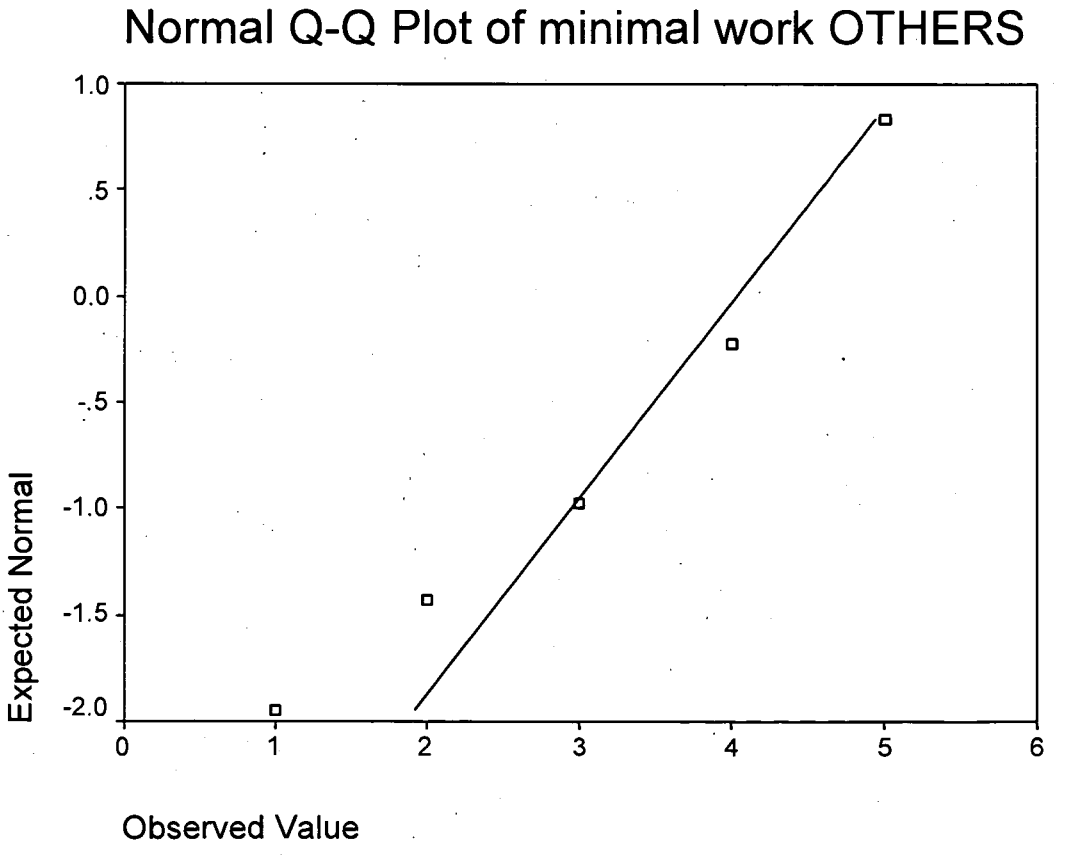


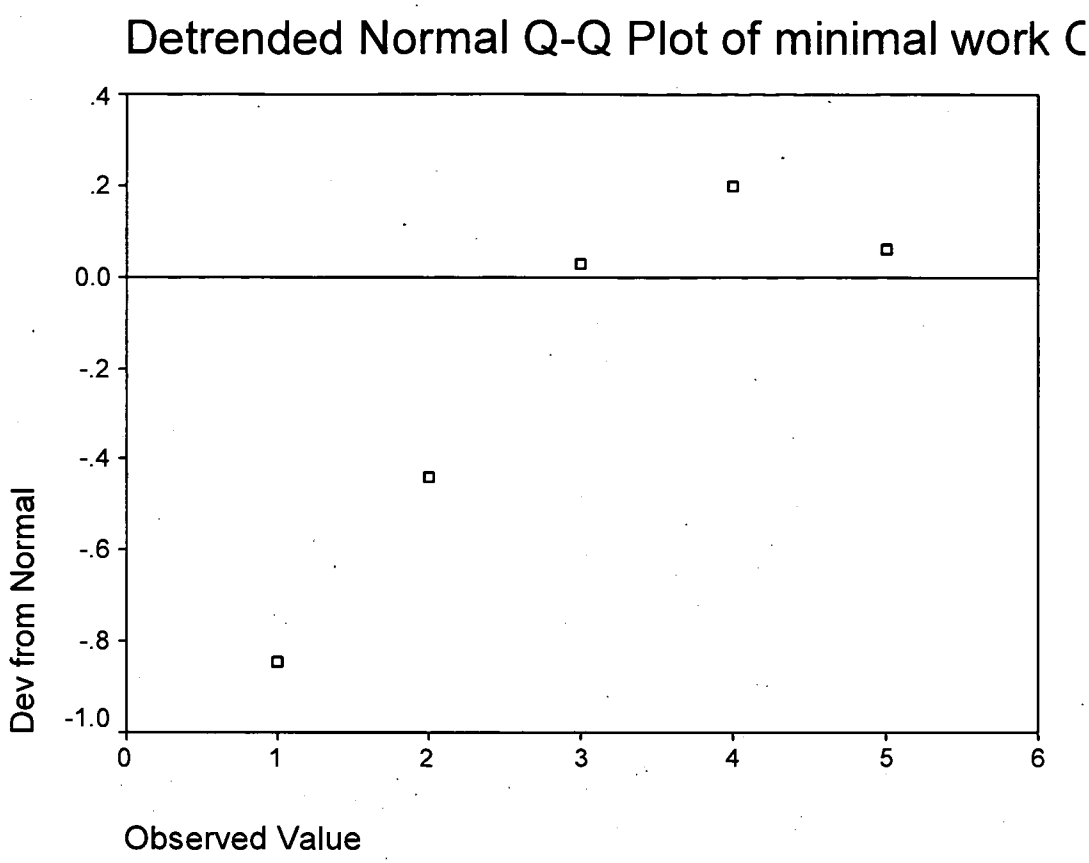
Minimal work (OTHERS)

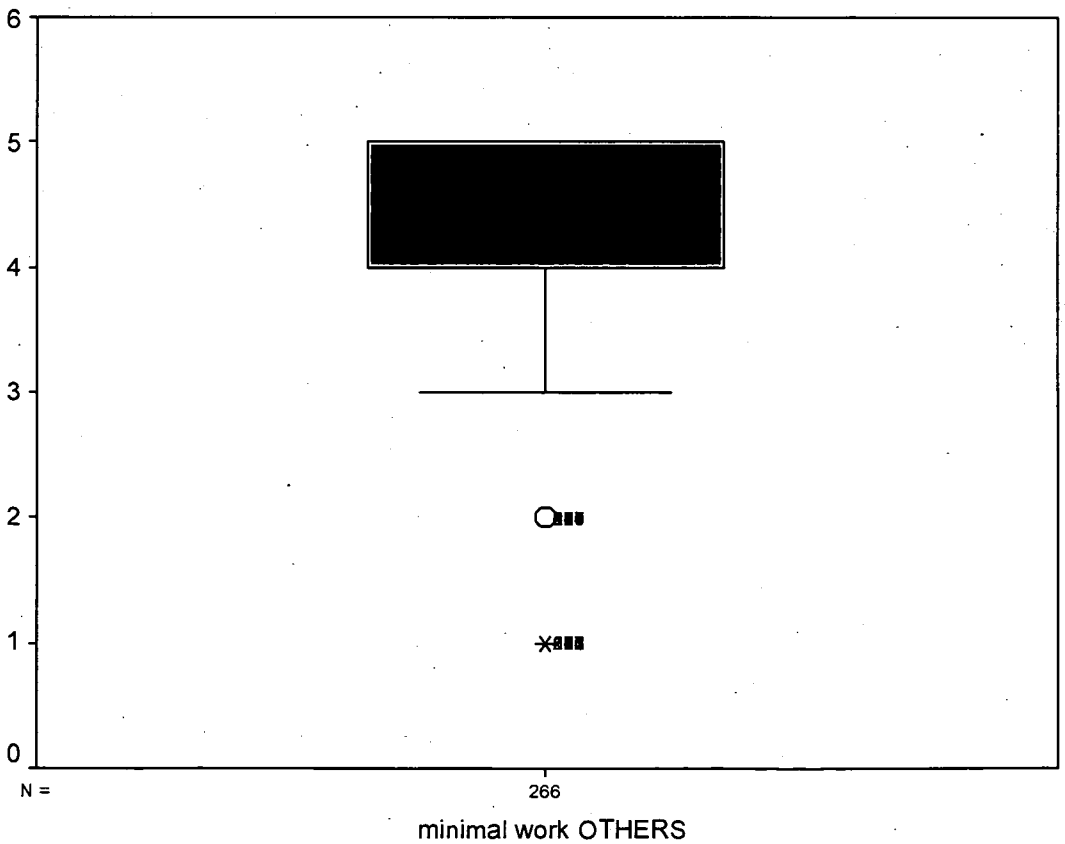


minimal work OTHERS Stem-and-Leaf Plot

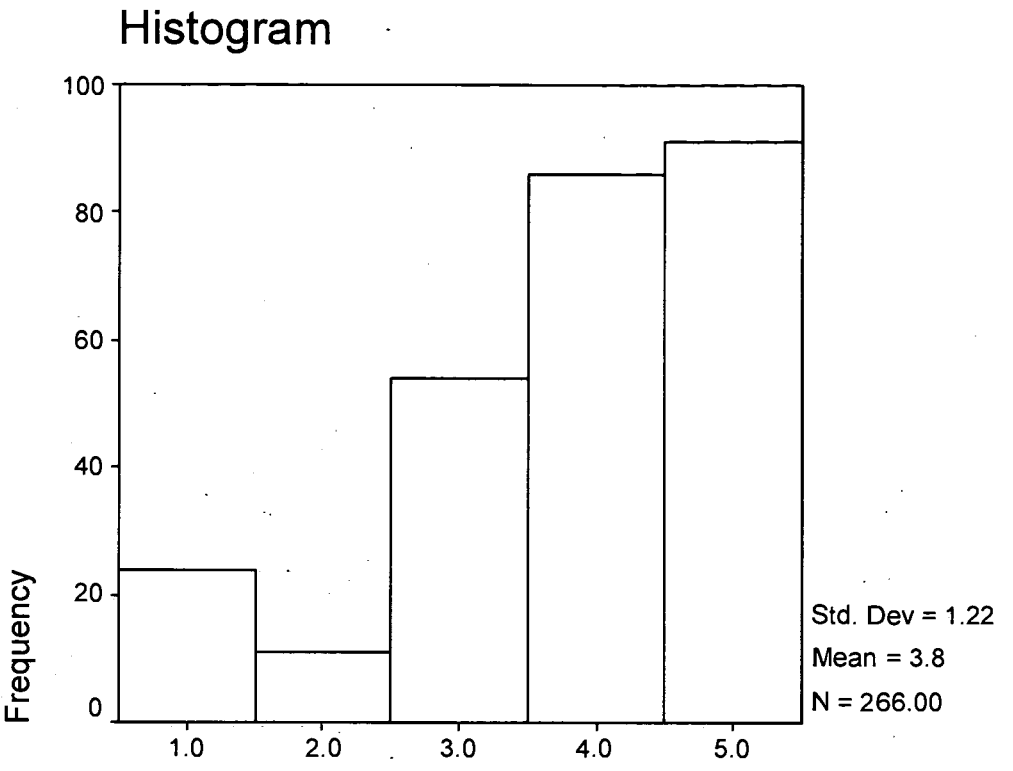
```
 Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

    27.00 Extremes    (=<2.0)
    33.00         3 .  00000000000
      .00         3 .
      .00         3 .
      .00         3 .
      .00         3 .
    99.00         4 .  000000000000000000000000000000000
      .00         4 .
      .00         4 .
      .00         4 .
      .00         4 .
   107.00         5 .  00000000000000000000000000000000000

 Stem width:          1
 Each leaf:       3 case(s)
```




Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of minimal work C
.4
.2
0.0
-.2
-.4
-.6
-.8
-1.0
Dev from Normal
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value

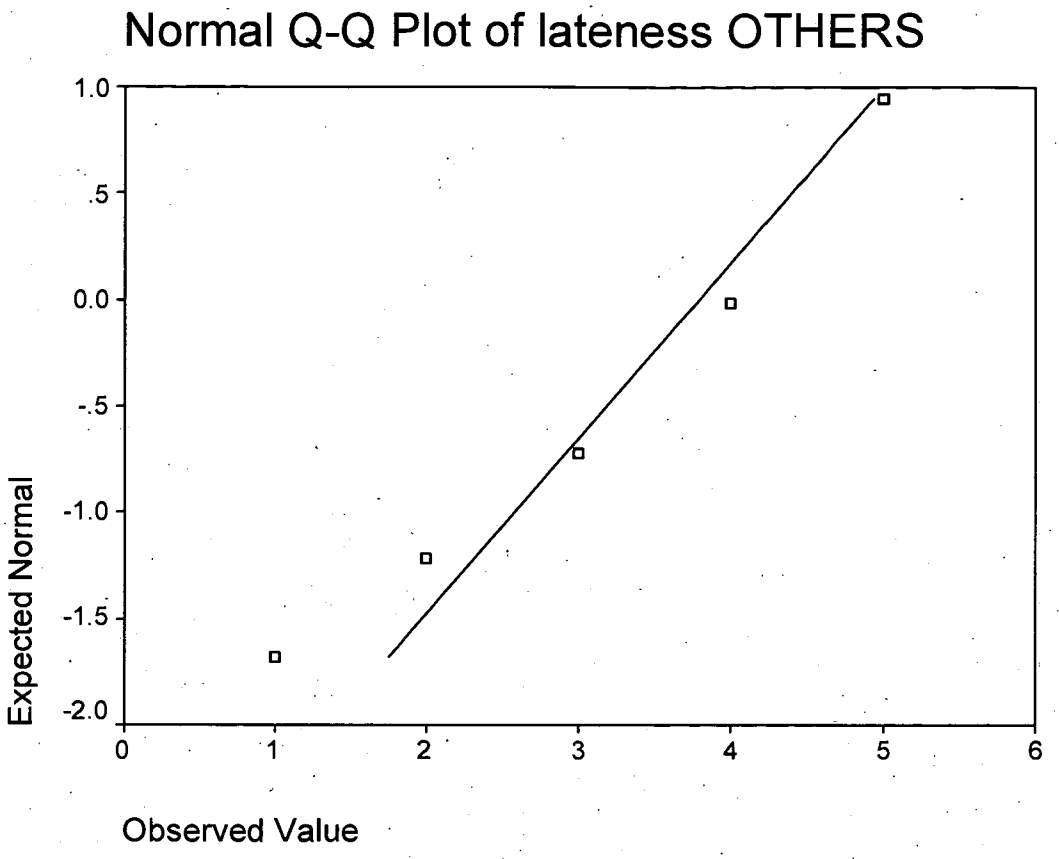

6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
minimal work OTHERS

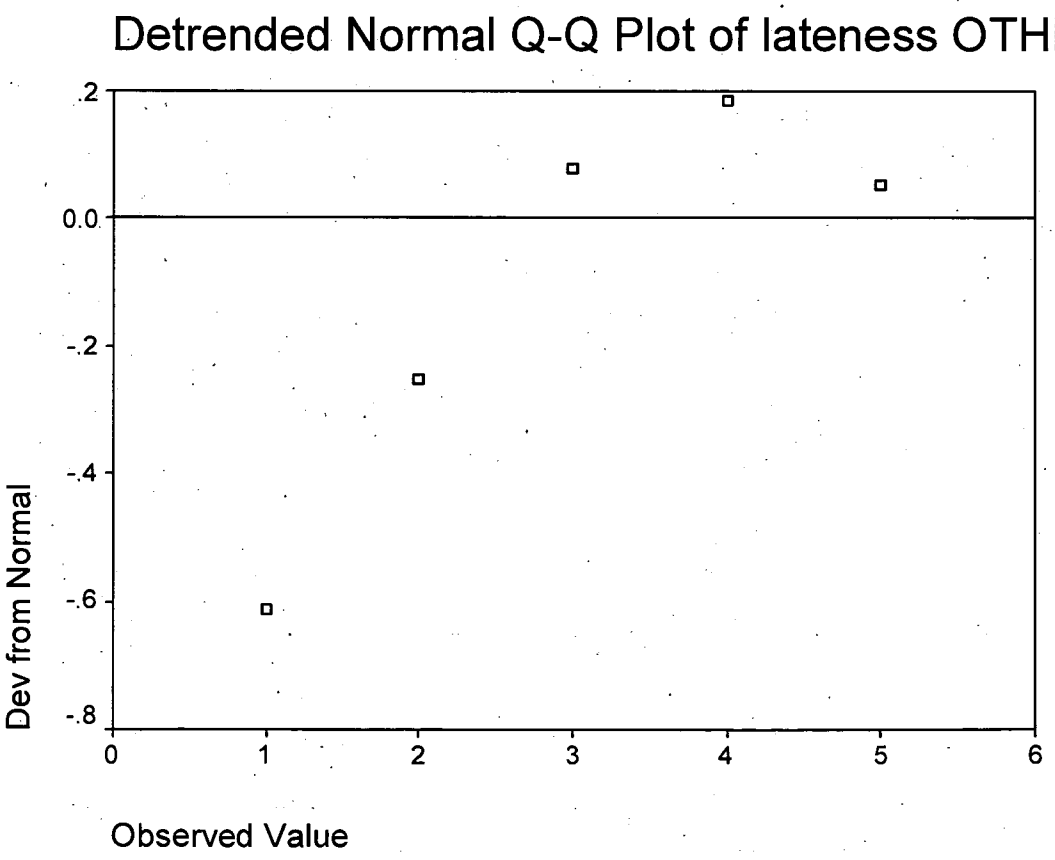
Lateness (OTHERS)

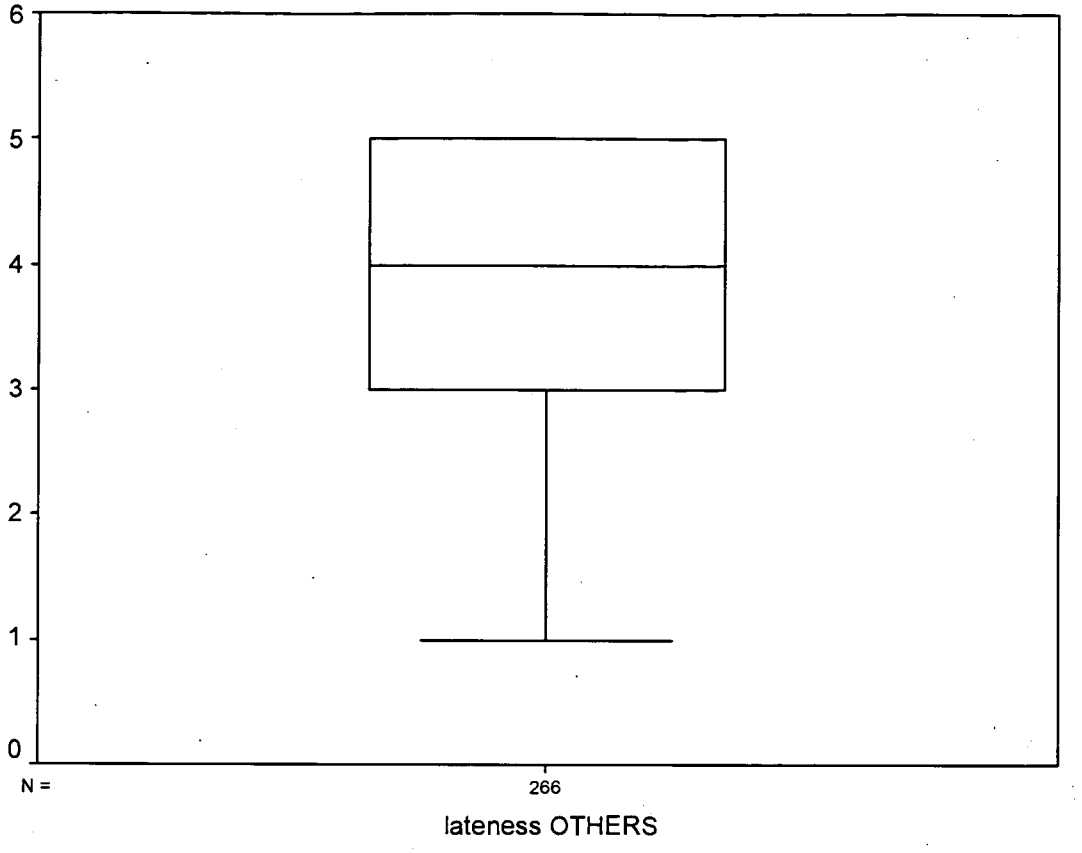


lateness OTHERS Stem-and-Leaf Plot

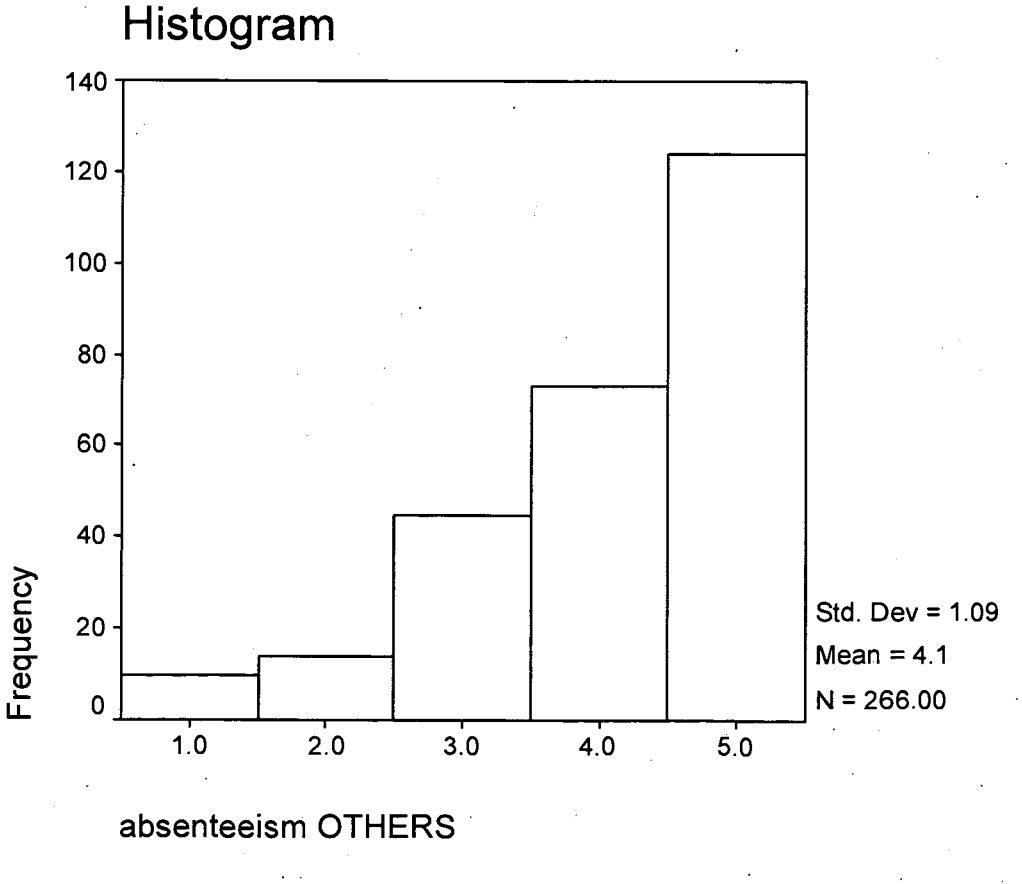
```
 Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

    24.00        1 .  000000000000
      .00        1 .
    11.00        2 .  00000
      .00        2 .
    54.00        3 .  000000000000000000000000000
      .00        3 .
    86.00        4 .  00000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000
      .00        4 .
    91.00                                                        5       .
0000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000

 Stem width:          1
 Each leaf:       2 case(s)
```


Normal Q-Q Plot of lateness OTHERS
Expected Normal
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
-1.5
-2.0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of lateness OTHE
Dev from Normal
.2
0.0
-.2
-.4
-.6
-.8
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value



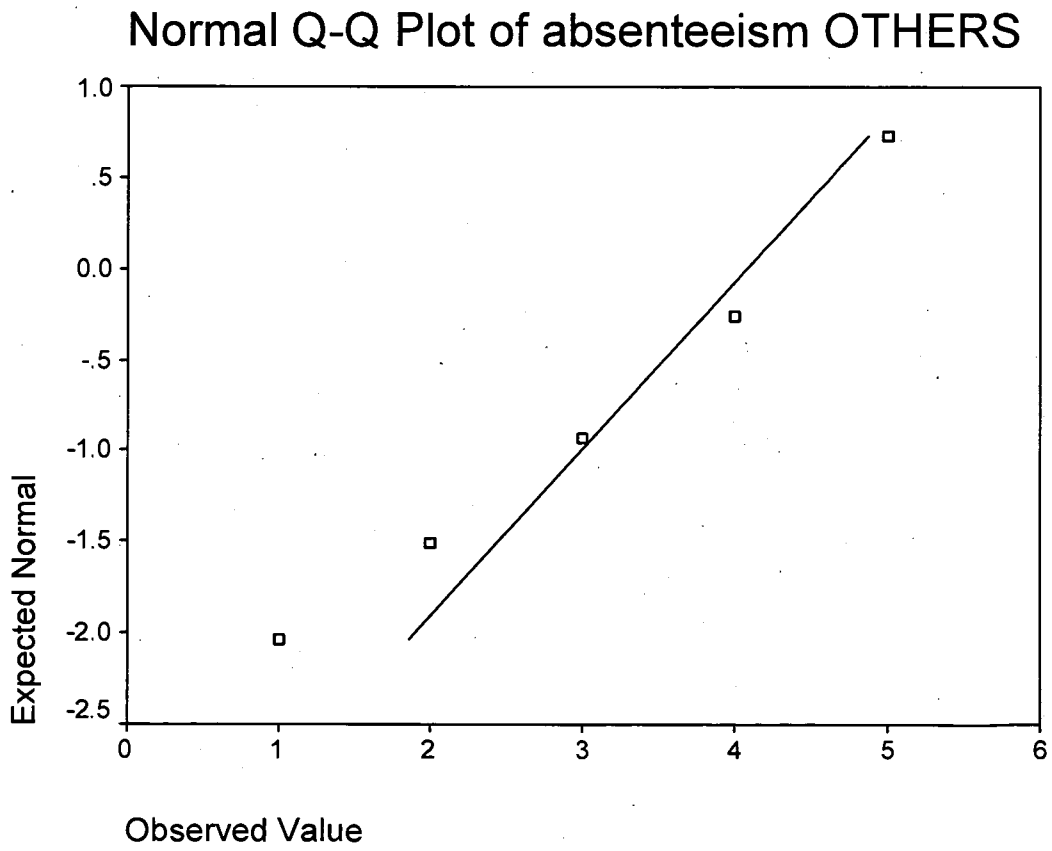
Absenteeism (OTHERS)

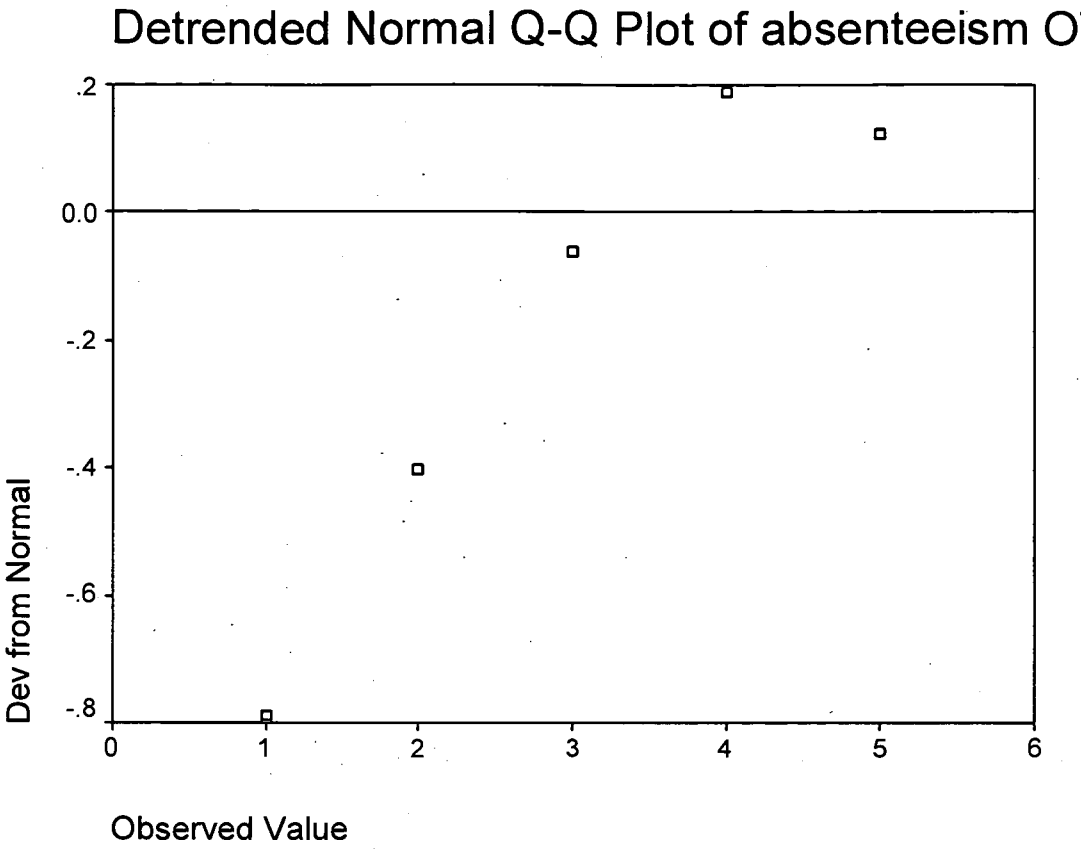


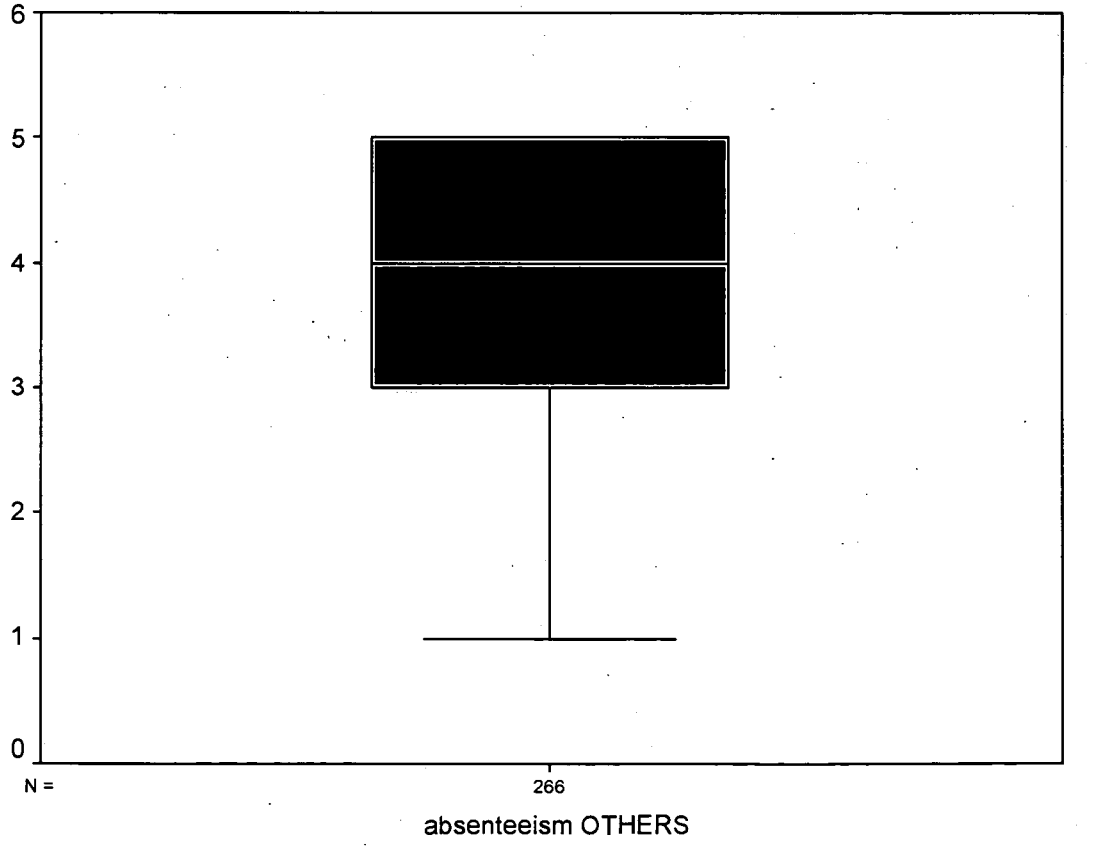
absenteeism OTHERS Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
10.00	1 .	000
.00	1 .	
14.00	2 .	00000
.00	2 .	
45.00	3 .	000000000000000
.00	3 .	
73.00	4 .	0000000000000000000000
.00	4 .	
124.00	5 .	00000000000000000000000000000000000000000000

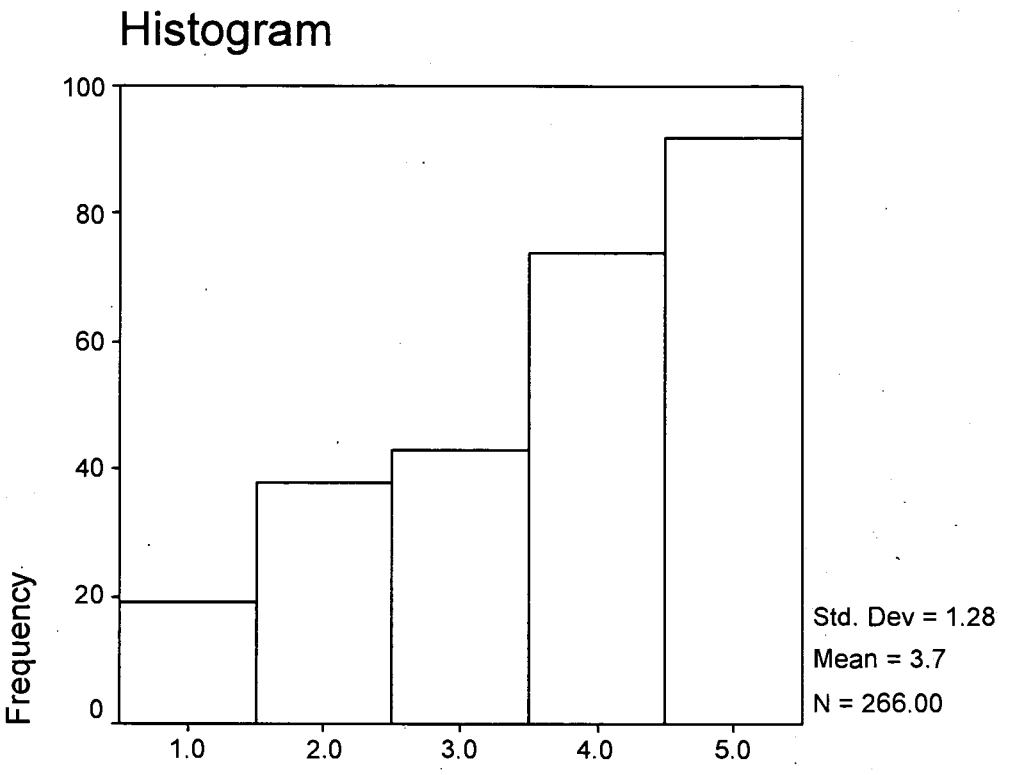
Stem width: 1
Each leaf: 3 case(s)



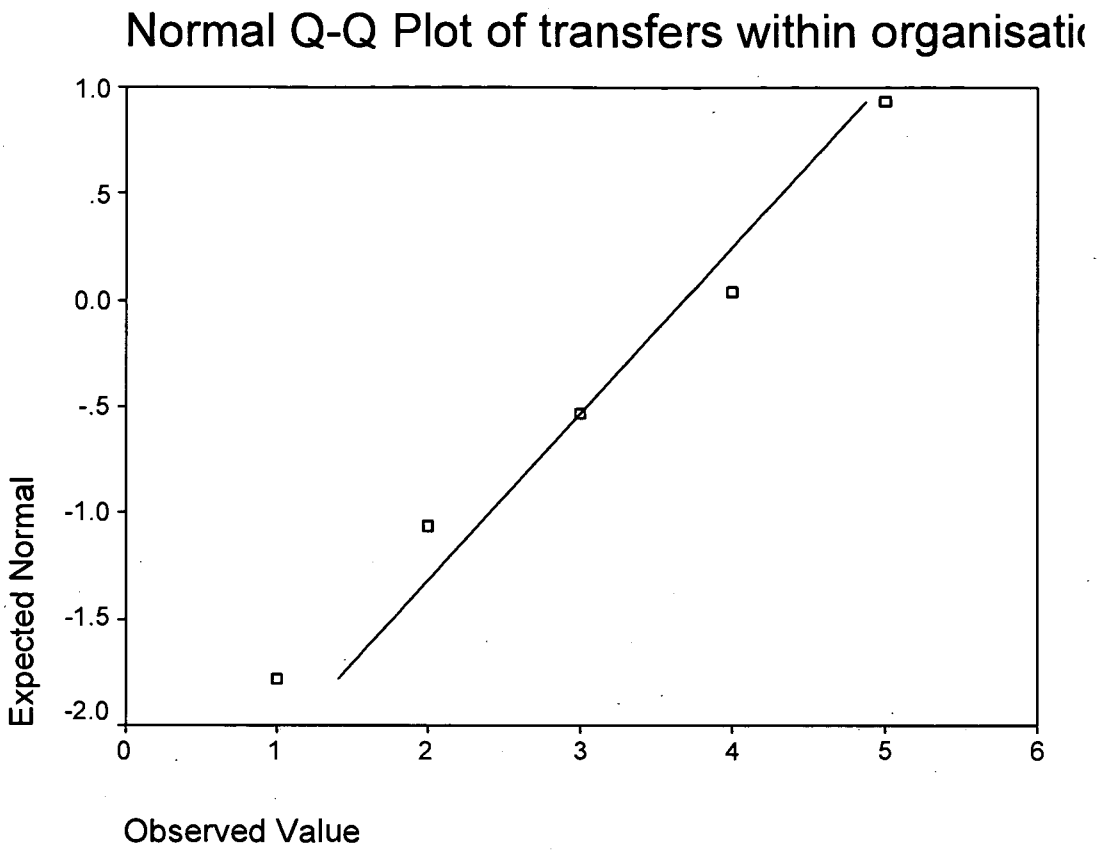

Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of absenteeism O
.2
0.0
-.2
-.4
-.6
-.8
Dev from Normal
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value

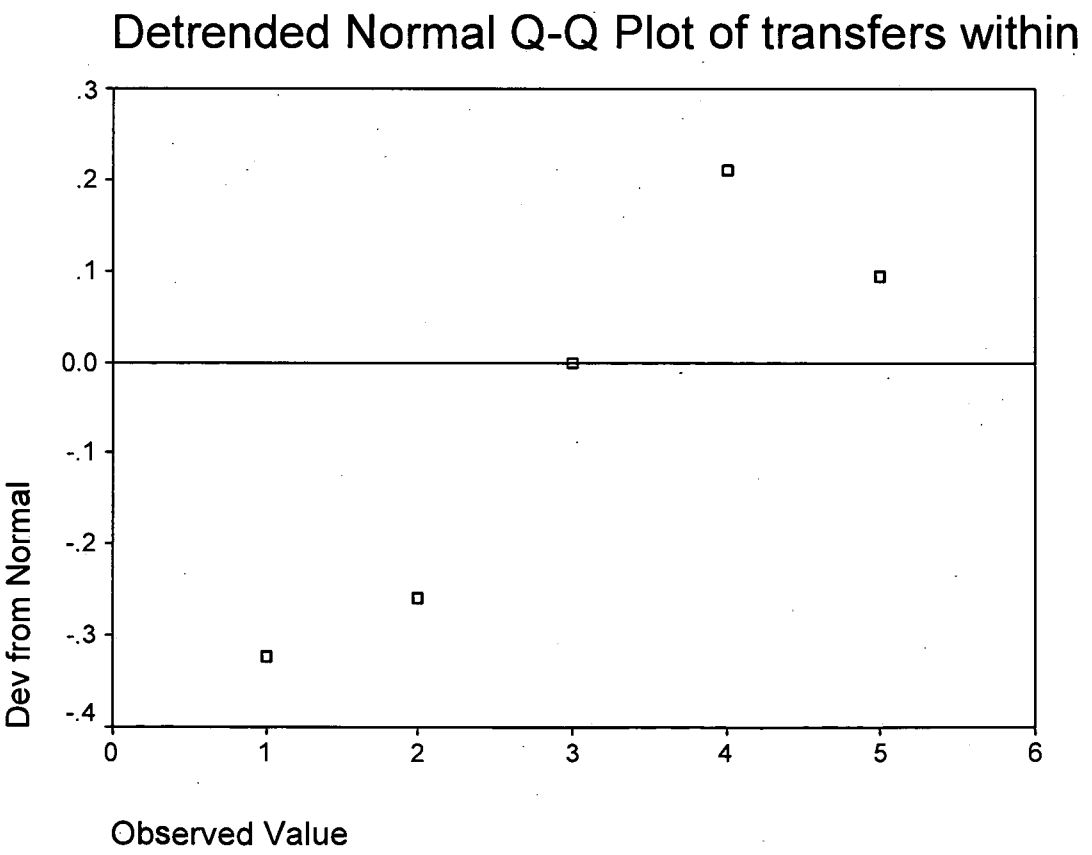

6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
absenteeism OTHERS

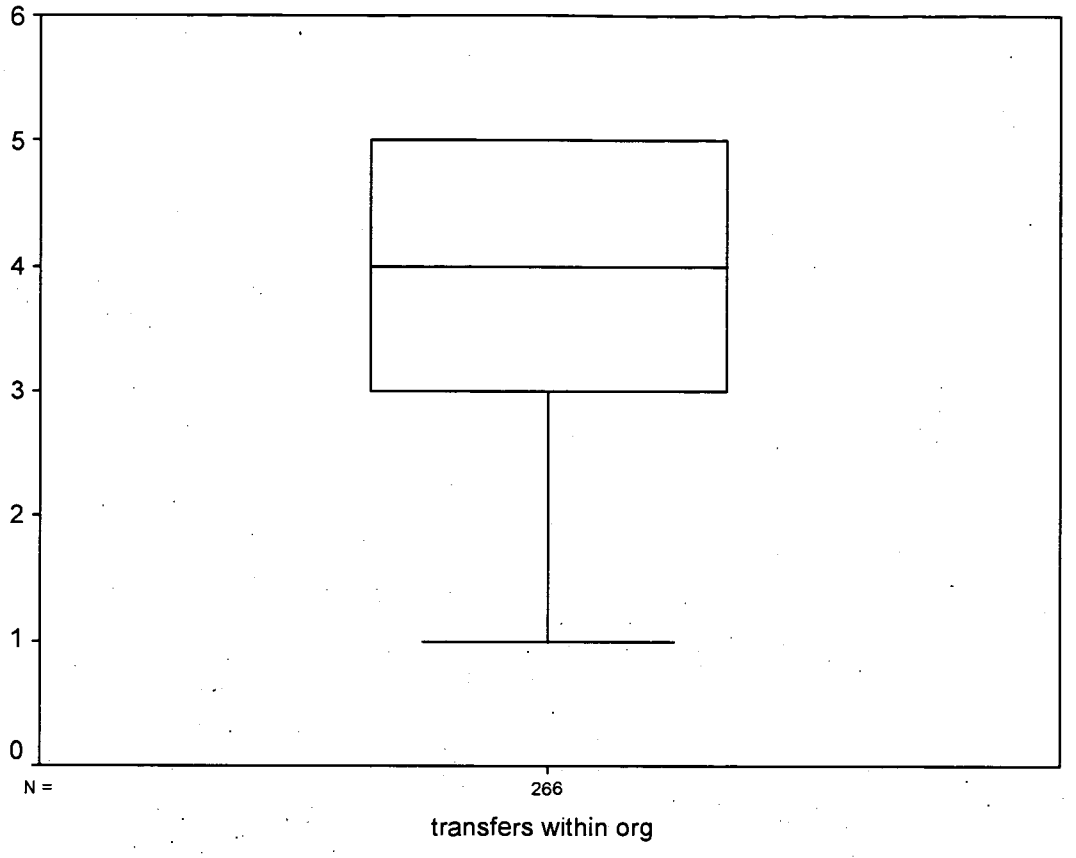
Transfers within organisation (OTHERS)



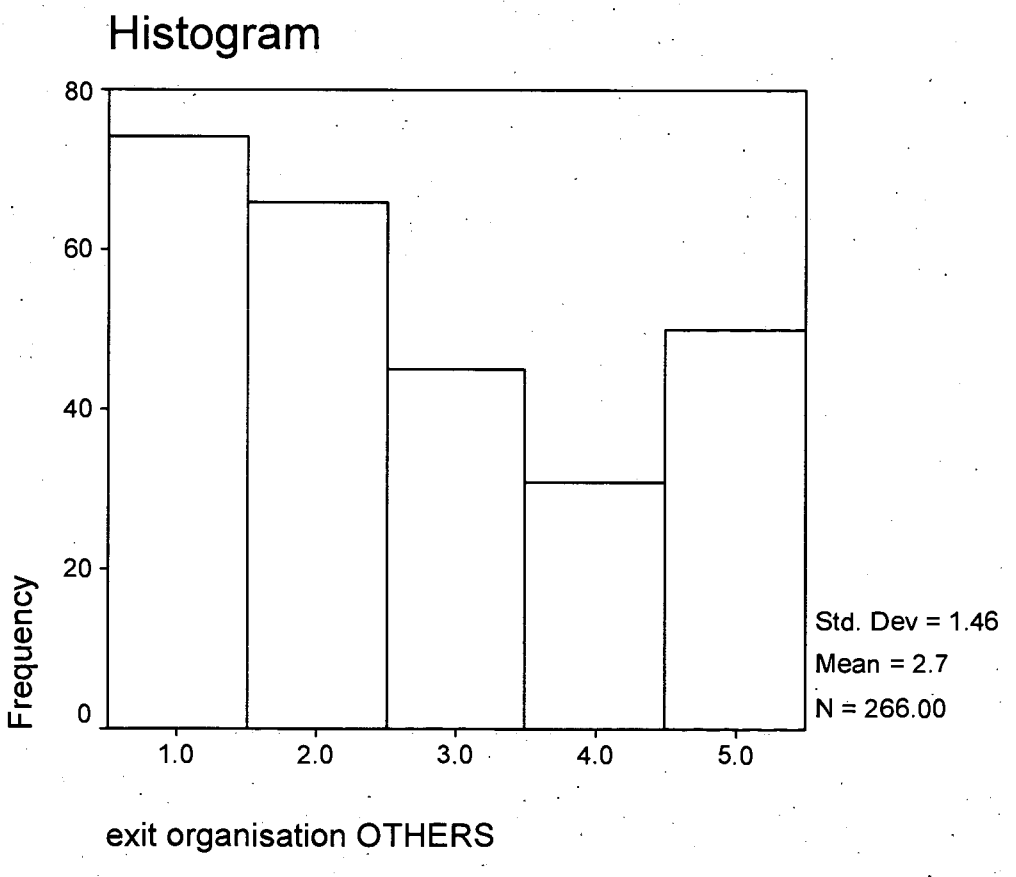

```
transfers within organisation OTHERS Stem-and-Leaf Plot

 Frequency     Stem &  Leaf

    19.00        1 .  000000000
      .00        1 .
    38.00        2 .  00000000000000000000
      .00        2 .
    43.00        3 .  00000000000000000000
      .00        3 .
    74.00        4 .  00000000000000000000000000000000000000
      .00        4 .
    92.00                                                    5
0000000000000000000000000000000000000000000000

 Stem width:          1
 Each leaf:       2 case(s)
```


Normal Q-Q Plot of transfers within organisati
Expected Normal
1.0
.5
0.0
-.5
-1.0
-1.5
-2.0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of transfers within
Dev from Normal
.3
.2
.1
0.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
-.4
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value



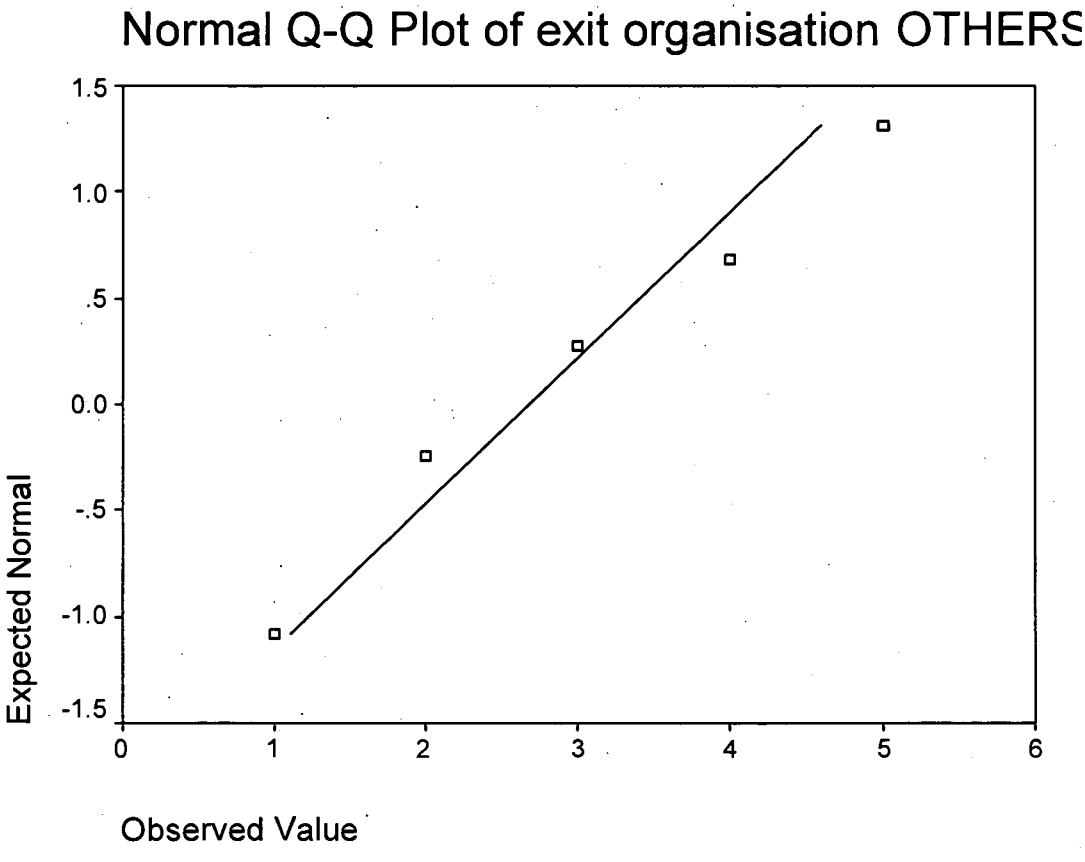
Exit organisation (OTHERS)

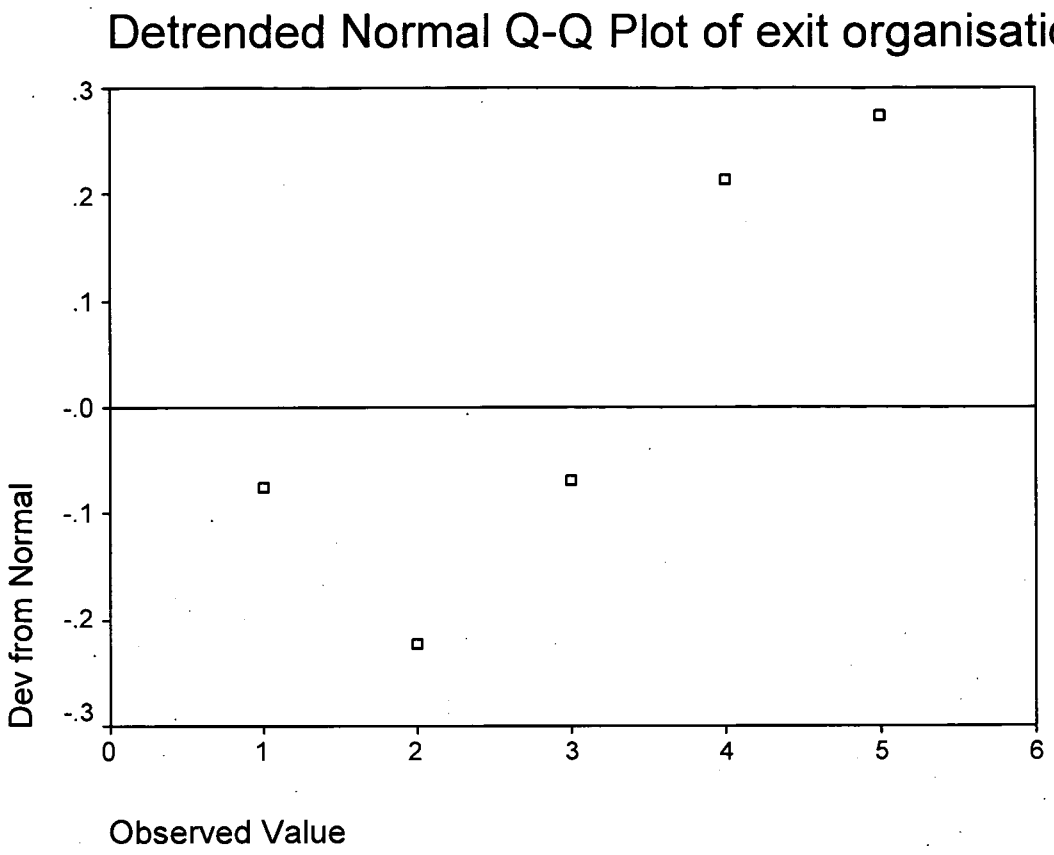


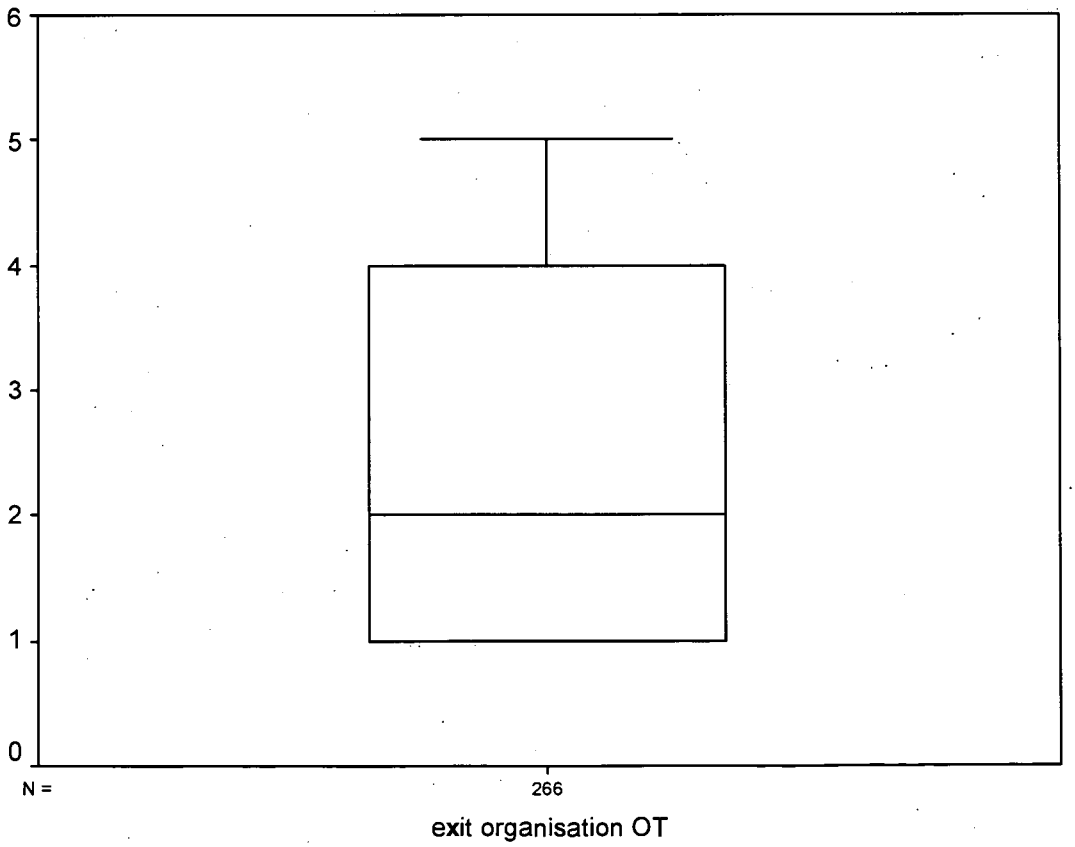
exit organisation OTHERS Stem-and-Leaf Plot

Frequency	Stem &	Leaf
74.00	1 .	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
.00	1 .	
66.00	2 .	000000000000000000000000000000000
.00	2 .	
45.00	3 .	000000000000000000000
.00	3 .	
31.00	4 .	0000000000000000
.00	4 .	
50.00	5 .	00000000000000000000000000

Stem width: 1
Each leaf: 2 case(s)




Detrended Normal Q-Q Plot of exit organisatio
Dev from Normal
.3
.2
.1
-.0
-.1
-.2
-.3
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
Observed Value


6
5
4
3
2
1
0
N =
266
exit organisation OT